Presented by Mr. G. B. Bakshi, Tanjore

ALL ABOUT THE WAR

93

THE INDIAN REVIEW WAR BOOK.

EDITED BY

G. A. NATESAN, B.A., F.M.U.

WITH AN INTRODUCTION

BY

H. E. The Rt. Hon'ble Lord Pentland, P.C., G.C.I.E.,

GOVERNOR OF MADRAS.

H. E. THE VICEROY'S OPINION.

"A well-planned volume which should be of very great use to the public for whom it is intended."

FIRST EDITION.

PUBLISHED BY G. A. NATESAN & CO., MADRAS.

PRICE RUPEES FOUR.

93

H. M. KING GEORGE V.

[*Amongst the many incidents that have marked the unanimous uprising of the populations of my Empire in defence of its unity and integrity, nothing has moved me more than the passionate devotion to my Throne expressed both by my Indian and English subjects and by the Feudatory Princes and Ruling Chiefs of India and their prodigious offers of their lives and their resources in the cause of the realm. Their one-voiced demand to be foremost in conflict has touched my heart and has inspired to the highest issues the love and devotion which, as I well know, have ever linked my Indian subjects and myself. I recall to mind India's gracious message to the British nation of goodwill and fellowship which greeted my return in February 1912, after the solemn ceremony of my Coronation Durbar at Delhi, and I find in this hour of trial a full harvest and a noble fulfilment of the assurance given by you that the destinies of Great Britain and India are indissolubly linked.— H. M. The King-Emperor's message to India on the Declaration of War.*]

H. E. LORD HARDINGE.

[*I am confident that the people of India, standing shoulder to shoulder, will shrink from no sacrifice and will loyally co-operate with the Government in maintaining internal order and in doing all in their power to secure the triumph of the arms of our King-Emperor. The countless meetings to express loyalty held throughout India and the warm response of the people to my appeal for funds for the relief of distress in India during the War, have filled me with satisfaction and have confirmed my first impression that, in this War, the Government would be supported by the determination, courage, and endurance of the whole country. If it was, moreover, with confidence and pride that I was able to offer to His Majesty the finest and largest military force of British and Indian troops for service in Europe that has ever left the shores of India, I am confident that the honour of this land and of the British Empire may be safely entrusted to our brave soldiers and that they will acquit themselves nobly and ever maintain their high traditions of military chivalry and courage. —H. E. Lord Hardinge in the Viceregal Council on September 3, 1914.*]

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.

This is in the main a collection of the series of articles that have appeared in the *Indian Review* since the outbreak of the war. It is an attempt to present under one cover, a comprehensive and authentic account of the war with illustrations, portraits, cartoons, maps, and diagrams. It deals among other subjects with the ethnic, historical and immediate causes of the war; the political history of the Belligerents and the Neutrals; sketches of the Rulers at war, the leading Statesmen and Ministers of the Powers, the Army and Navy Chiefs and other famous fighters in the front; the moral and economic aspects of the war; prize courts; the position of Neutrals and other International problems; and the latest engines and weapons of warfare on land, sea and air. It contains also a general account of all forms of rescue, relief and humanitarian efforts in time of war; and copious other information of the most interesting and useful kind compiled from various sources with the fullest particulars of the magnificent rally of India and the Colonies to the British Flag and a narrative of the campaigns on land and sea.

The articles have been contributed by many well-known Officers of the Indian Civil, Military, and Medical Services, Ministers of Native States, Educationists, Journalists, Engineers, Lawyers, Publicists and other Specialists. A glance at the table of contents will show that the collection includes almost everything that is likely to interest the reader in connection with the war—not only its origin and conduct, but the deeper problems and currents of policy that force themselves on the thoughtful student of human affairs.

I cannot sufficiently express my obligations to the contributors who readily responded to my request to write for the *Indian Review* and enabled me to bring out this publication in this form. I do not forget the fact that the principal motive of all the writers is the service they render in the great work of increasing the enthusiasm for the British Empire.

I esteem it a good fortune that His Excellency Lord Pentland has found time amidst pressing and arduous work to write an Introduction, and no words can adequately convey my appreciation of His Excellency's kindness.

My acknowledgments are also due to the proprietors of those magazines and periodicals from which some of the illustrations in this volume have been taken.

G. A. NATESAN.

Madras, August, 1915.

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INTRODUCTION

BY

H. E. The Rt. Hon. LORD PENTLAND, P.C., G.C.I.E.,

GOVERNOR OF MADRAS.

IT is a truism that at no period do events present themselves to contemporary observers in their true historical perspective, and the saying applies, perhaps with special force, to the world-wide convulsion which is shaking present-day civilisation to its foundations. To attempt, therefore, any complete survey of the great war or to draw final and reasoned conclusions regarding it is a task that must be left, and properly left, to future generations. But, leaving aside ambitious philosophical aims, merely to collate facts as they present themselves to contemporary view, to trace the events which preceded the catastrophe, to survey, so far as present information permits, the social and political causes and tendencies which led up to it, to present to the general reader the principal actors in the great drama and the setting of its opening scenes, cannot fail to be an undertaking of great interest and usefulness. To readers in India, on many of whom, removed as they are from the centre of the disturbance, the war has come with the inexplicable suddenness of a tropical cyclone, such an exposition of its causes and significance will especially appeal, and the firm of G. A. Natesan & Co. are to be congratulated on their enterprise in thus successfully bringing together in a convenient form this interesting collection of papers.

While written and compiled for the most part frankly from the standpoint of Britain and her Allies, the book approaches this absorbing subject from every point of view and seeks to furnish the reader from whatever side he regards it with information and materials for judgment.

The political and economic aspects are presented in the pronouncements of statesmen and in the essays on war and economics; the historical side is treated in the articles on the history and vicissitudes of Belgium and Poland, on those of the Allies of Britain—France, Russia and Japan—and on those of the Germanic powers, while the attitude of neutral countries, such as Greece and Holland, which is of peculiar interest at the present time, receives separate treatment. In the essays on Macht-Politik, on Nietzsche, Von Treitschke and Bernhardi the school of thought which has gone so far to form the modern German ideal is philosophically considered, while the numerous sketches of the rulers, ministers, statesmen and commanders which are contained in the compilation cannot but interest the student of biography, of character and personality.

In the book will also be found an analysis and a comparison of the Armies and Navies of the Powers and the more technical—and to the general reader unfamiliar—aspects of warfare are presented in articles on artillery in war, on military engineering and aviation and on medical relief and ambulance work.

In no part of the Empire has the response to the call of the Mother Country been more ready than in India and, as is fitting in a compilation mainly intended for readers in this country, the response of India, her princes and peoples, the aid they have rendered in men, money and material are fully set forth. It cannot fail to be a source of interest and satisfaction to all readers, to whatever community they may belong, to see brought together in these pages the record of India's many-sided activities in helping the common cause. Here one may read of the devotion by the Indian princes of

their personal services and the resources of their States to the Throne, of the loyal response of public men of every party and of the ready and self-sacrificing contributions of all classes of the population to the public War and Relief Funds which have been formed for the assistance of troops at the front, for the succouring of the sick and wounded in the field and the assistance of their families at home and for the relief of civil distress resulting from the war. Amongst the other practical results of their generosity is recorded the equipment in India of two Hospital Ships, one by funds raised in Northern India, and one by Madras contributions, and the formation, under the auspices of the St. John's Ambulance Association, of numerous committees throughout the country for the collection of articles for the use of the sick and wounded in the field.

In the list of those who have contributed articles or essays appear, besides numerous other writers, the names—to mention a few only—of five Professors of the Madras Christian College, of two members of the staff of Pachaiyappa's College; of several members of the staff of the Presidency and Law Colleges of Madras, three members of the Indian Civil and four members of the Indian Medical Services employed in Madras besides numerous others of the engineering and legal professions in this Presidency. The book, therefore, while owing much to outside contributors, is largely a Madras Presidency production and should prove of special interest for Madras readers.

Enough has perhaps been said to indicate the nature, the scope and the aim of the work, which are indeed fitly summed up in its title. It is an interesting record of contemporary views and of the impressions made on thinking minds by the great events taking place around us, and to the ordinary reader it affords a compendium of information which he has neither time nor opportunity to collect for himself. As such it deserves, and will, I trust, achieve a wide circulation.

PENTLAND.

H. E. LORD PENTLAND.

[*We seek no gain or aggrandisement, no lordship over others, no territory. It is not for this that the blood of our brothers has been given ; but to defend our own existence, our honour and all that we hold dear, to maintain public right against force, to preserve inviolate the liberties which in all ends of the earth are at once the pride, the strength and bond of union of our Empire : and the safeguard of the rights of other nations the faith by which we live and strive for mankind. Laying aside all lesser thoughts and feelings, all minor aims, all selfish indifference, all the peoples and nations of the British Empire, fellow citizens and subjects of the King-Emperor have with one heart and mind given freely of their best for these great causes.—H. E. Lord Pentland at the Meeting in the Senate House on the Anniversary of the War.*]

DR. DADABHAI NAOROJI.

[Fighting as the British people are at present in a righteous cause, to the good and glory of human dignity and civilisation, and moreover being the beneficent instruments of our own progress and civilisation, our duty is clear to do anything to support Britain's fight with our life and property. I have all my life been more of a critic than a simple praiser of the British Rule in India, and I have not hesitated to say some hard things at times. I can, therefore, speak with most perfect candour and sincerity what the British character is, what the civilisation of the world owes to the British people for benefits in the past, as well as for benefits to come. Yes, I have not the least doubt in my mind that every individual of the vast mass of humanity of India will have but one desire in his heart, viz., to support to the best of his ability and power the British people in their glorious struggle for justice, liberty, honour and true humane greatness and happiness. The Princes and the Peoples of India have made already spontaneous efforts and until the victorious end of this great struggle, no other thought than that of supporting whole-heartedly the British Nation should enter the mind of India.—Dr. Dadabhai Naoroji's Message, 12th August, 1914.]

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The Solidarity of the British Empire

BY SIR SIDNEY LEE.

I DO not think that any feature of the situation will impress more deeply the future historian of the war than the solidarity with which the whole of the British Empire has identified its varied interests with those of the mother country. All subjects of the King, of whatever creed and race, are standing shoulder to shoulder in the cause of imperial defence, with whole-heartedness, to which I do not think the world's history offers an even remote parallel. The fundamental cause of this imposing spirit of unity springs—I cannot doubt—from the recognition by all the members of the Empire that Imperial rule rests throughout its boundaries on an indissoluble basis of Justice and Liberty. Evidence abounds that among our German foes Imperial Government stands for cruel oppression of the weak and rigorous repression of non Germanic national sentiment. The Germans with their arrogant faith in the might of their own race are incapable of acknowledging the rights of other races. With characteristic shortness of sight they brought about this war in ignorance of the fact that principles of feeling and conduct to which they were strangers enjoyed an active life in countries other than their own. Especially did they believe that the rancours and jealousies which foreign peoples rouse in their hearts found reflection in the view which the Indian peoples took of Englishmen. They were encouraged to aim a blow at the British Empire by the confident anticipation that many of its component parts would at their call rally to their flag and join them in working for Imperial disruption. They reckoned without their host. At any rate the soldiers of India are doing what they can to open German eyes to the nature of the German miscalculation. The defeat of Germany in this murderous war means for the British Empire a strengthening of its salutary foundations and a fresh development of its liberties and its prosperity. But beyond that the triumph of the Allies means the emancipation of the whole world from the menace of German barbarism and brute force.

INDIA AND THE WAR

BY MR. G. A. NATESAN, EDITOR, *The Indian Review.*

SINCE the advent of British rule in India no event has stirred the loyal feelings of the people so deeply and so profoundly as the present war in which Great Britain is engaged. There is hardly a thoughtful Indian who does not realise the magnitude of the great struggle and the one duty that lies straight before him at this hour of trouble. The magnificent response which the appeals for the funds started by H. R. H. the Prince of Wales and H. E. the Viceroy have met with at the hands of the nobility of the land, the subscriptions that are being collected from the people by hundreds of voluntary organizations started all over the country, the readiness with which princes and people have vied with one another in offering themselves to proceed to the front, are evidence—if evidence were wanted—of the tie of affection and loyalty which every citizen, from the prince down to the peasant, feels for the British Throne. To use the felicitous words of a distinguished Indian publicist: "At this juncture of supreme gravity, men of different races and religions, of different creeds and communities, Parsee and Mussalman, proclaim with one heart, one soul and one mind, that these differences distinguish but do not divide us, and that in the presence of the solemn situation we are merged in one general and universal denomination, the proud denomination of loyal and devoted subjects of the British Crown." Our grievances, our rights, our privileges, our reforms and charters, we forget for the moment, and we only remember our sacred and solemn obligation to the great Power that has moulded our destinies hitherto and is bound to lift us all onward to a better and nobler goal. The country has realised more than ever that the political evolution of India, equally with the march of civilisation, is dependent on the supremacy of Great Britain and the integrity of the British Empire.

ATTACHED INDIA

BY THE HON. SIR PRABASHANKER D. PATTANI, K.C.I.E.
Member, Executive Council, Bombay.

DIFFICULTIES and adversity are the real tests of friendship; common danger often proves the indissoluble bond of union. Or as the old Sanskrit poet put it:—"In the days of your friend's prosperity talk straight to him, so that his eyes may never stray from the straight vision of things; when he is criticised or attacked, do not dwell upon his weak points but extol his best qualities: for staunchness in difficulty and succour in need are fundamental duties of friend to friend." These are principles which we shall do well to lay to heart in days when the British Empire is engaged in a life and death struggle with those who seek to destroy it.

England is to-day reaping the fruits of the friendships which she formed in the days of peace; she is garnering the harvest of the sincere and unshakeable trust which she placed in her friends. And nowhere is that harvest so rich as in India. As India has enjoyed peace and prosperity under the British Crown, so has India shown that she was worthy of the privileges enjoyed. Tried by the supreme test of world-wide war, she has risen to the full height of the great occasion: she has contributed of her store to the sacrifices which the Empire has demanded of all its component parts; she has been second to none of the Daughter States at the call of duty; and these services have been ungrudgingly recognised by British statesmen as eminent as the Premier, Lord Crewe, and the quondam Leader of the Opposition, who is now a colleague in the National Ministry, all of whom confessed their inability to recount the full tale of India's services to the Empire. And—this is perhaps the most significant element of all—India, and all classes in India, have rejoiced at the opportunity of service and sacrifice which this war offered. What are the springs underlying this remarkable proof of India's devotion to the Crown and the Empire, which has so singularly disturbed the prophecies of the enemies of England? It will repay us if we analyse them for a moment, for in these days when there is a tendency for selfish materialism to be dominant, and the eye is bent on the intrinsic benefits accruing from right dealing and honourable conduct, rather than upon the pursuit of ethical principles because they are right in themselves, it is desirable for a people to be assured of the justice of its cause and not to remain satisfied with mere expediency.

The loyalty of a people to its Sovereign proceeds from a variety of causes:—(1) From a traditional and hereditary sentiment inculcating obedience to authority; (2) from an intellectual and reasoned loyalty; (3) from the material instinct of self-preservation; and (4) from the general desire for the continuance of the happiness and tranquillity long enjoyed under a peaceful reign. Now the loyalty of India satisfies all these standards. The conservative and peace-loving Indian is, by the traditions of thousands of years, a devout believer in the wisdom of Providence, whose representative they see in the person of their King. *Naranam Cha Naradhipa*—"I am the King", said Lord Krishna. The Indian people, as a whole, look upon their Sovereign as the embodiment of all that can be divine in human form. This is the spiritual loyalty of a whole people—an instinctive loyalty in its most abiding form; such is the loyalty of India.

We turn next to the intellectual ideal of loyalty; of this the educated classes are the custodians. In addition to their traditional attachment to the Monarch, intensified by an appreciation of the virtues and sympathy with India of the Royal House of England, they are loyal to the British Crown, because they see that under the ægis of that Crown the destinies of India will best be fulfilled. It is the duty of the educated classes in India to instil in the minds of the less educated, whose instinctive and traditional loyalty is in danger of being shaken in these days of educational progress and individualism, the true ideal of loyalty. They have done a great work in this direction. Those who freely criticised the administration in time of peace and called for further political development, have now raised their voices equally loudly in preaching the imperative need for co-operation with Government. They are actively engaged in the collection of funds for the relief of the suffering and distress caused by the war; in urging the avoidance of controversial topics for the present; and in maintaining themselves, and convincing the people, that India's connection with England is the only political condition conducive to the country's welfare, and that any help which India can give now is not only a contribution to the cause of right and justice, but like all such gifts, will tend to the permanent advantage of the

country when accounts are adjusted at the close of this colossal struggle. They are, in brief, acting as the keepers of the nation's mind and conscience. They are cheerfully doing this from the conviction that, apart from the material interests associated with the indissoluble tie which links India with England, their action is sanctioned by the laws of justice and humanity. Products of English education, they are maintaining in practice the moral principles which they imbibed with that education; these, united with the inborn ideals of Indian ethical truths, make their influence the more appreciable.

We now come to those people who, standing aloof from politics for the most part, are loyal because they are wedded to the peace and tranquillity which have been ours in such abundant measure under the British Crown. They include the traders, merchants, and peasantry and industrial proletariat—people loyal by temperament, but, let us say, rendered the warmer in their attachment to the Crown by the natural desire to continue to enjoy the benefits of a settled and justice-loving Government. They form the bulk of the population; they have, with wonderful unanimity and without the slightest hope of personal advantage but solely from gratitude or good government in the past and confidence in good government in future, given their unflinching support to the cause of the Empire and freely from their purses to the Relief Funds.

Here we have been dealing solely with the attachment of British India Proper to the Crown; but no consideration of this question can be adequate which does not take account of the remarkable outpouring of service from the Native States in subordinate alliance with the Government, which has been of the greatest value in diverse ways. The Native States system being outside the purview of British administration, and consequently outside the direct gaze of those specifically interested in that administration, has been subject to no little misunderstanding and misrepresentation. The articulate classes in British India have frequently held it up as a system subject to the personal rule of autocratic Princes and Chiefs, who set an example of misrule and existed only through the sufferance of the British Government. Here again the real facts have emerged under the supreme test of war. The Native States, representing nearly one-third of the Continent of India, have been a tower of strength to the Empire. It is impossible to enumerate the directions in which their Rulers have aided the Imperial Government—by personal service and by the loan of trained military contingents; by contributions in money and in the form of hospital ships, motor ambulances, horse and camel transport, Imperial Service Troops and gifts in kind—all these have been the ready gifts of our protected Princes. If we in British India have proved our solidarity with the British Empire by our constancy and steadfast loyalty, the Princes have, indeed, shown that they are amongst the strongest pillars of the Throne; they have proved that the wonderful constellation of Princes and Chiefs who offered their homage to the Sovereign at the Imperial Durbar at Delhi stood not for mere pageantry, but for the concrete embodiment of the Empire's potential strength. There is another point. Some of our impatient politicians have been wont to regard the Native States as anachronistic elements in the Indian body politic, hindering by their personal rule the constitutional growth of the country. But the Princes and Chiefs have demonstrated the necessity for the Native States in the Indian polity. These States have for years been the training ground for indigenous Indian administrators and have shown that, given opportunities, Indians can attain the same level of administrative and executive capacity as any Occidental; and to-day, in the hour of the Empire's need, by giving freely of their best, they have demonstrated their great value and importance in our system of Government.

These are some of the forces which lie behind that supreme rally of India to the Empire, which has surprised the world and delighted the whole British people. In the long peace through which we passed they were for the most part dormant, because there was not the stimulus to awaken them; as soon as the emergency arose they flamed into the practical expression which has proved one of the great assets of the Empire. They have directly assisted the Imperial Government by the active participation of Indian soldiers in the fighting, and in the provision of funds to relieve the burden on the finances; they have indirectly assisted the Imperial Government by maintaining perfect order and peace throughout the country, thus freeing those in authority from the distraction associated with internal security and permitting concentration on the successful prosecution of the war. Nor can we rightly limit the action of these forces to their direct and indirect influence on the prosecution of the war; like all great emotional upheavals they go much deeper and spread much wider.

The introspection induced by a shock of arms which renders minor human interests almost contemptible has led us to see the things that really matter much in clearer perspective. It has brought all interests in the country closer together and has led to a much better understanding of the Native States and their value to the Empire; it has brought a much closer understanding between the Indian intellectuals and the Government, which will be of incalculable value in the political readjustment which must follow the close of the war, as each side now sees more clearly the motives and principles of the other; and it has inspired a much shrewder appreciation of what good government is and what it means to every individual. Under the hammer strokes of our enemies has been forged a closer link between India and England. For whilst, on the one hand, India's complete co-operation with the Raj has endeared her to the Government; on the other, the full recognition by all in authority of the completeness of India's service has inspired the confident belief that the natural political growth of the country will be freely encouraged, without any trace of the suspicion or doubt which might have existed before this supreme trial. There is a closer approximation than at any previous period in the history of British rule in India between the point of view of the Government and of the people, and of this closer understanding has been born the confidence which will be the mainspring of our common policy in the years that are before us.

Let me just note in passing two other factors. India has never entertained a shadow of doubt as to the absolute justice of the cause for which Great Britain drew the sword. The struggle of Sir Edward Grey to avert war failed because the Teutonic Powers were resolved on the humiliation of the *Entente* or war; the rape of Belgium, accompanied by brutalities which are sickening, sealed the pre-meditated crime of Germany. Then we are supremely fortunate in that the King's Vicegerent was by temperament and experience the Englishman most fitted to educe and express the emotions which surcharged India when the war broke out. It is not for me now to attempt to analyse the reasons which have given Lord Hardinge his unique position in the hearts and minds of all classes in India. Foremost amongst them, of course, is his complete identification with our major interests—an identification which, in that historic speech on the Transvaal Indian question and at Madras, made us feel that the Government of India was also the *Indian Government*. Then there is that transparent simplicity of character and speech which goes straight to the Indian heart, that devotion to duty amid bitter losses which inspires gratitude and affection. These are points on which it is unnecessary to labour, beyond the expression of the universal feeling that in Lord Hardinge we have a Viceroy commanding and receiving our absolute confidence. He it was who on the outbreak of the war with rare prescience interpreted our desires when he said India devoted the last man and the last gun to the service of the Empire; he it is who had focussed our desire for service in the steady stream of help which has flowed to the assistance of the Crown; and he it is who embodies our hopes and trust for the future: our great plea is that he may guide us not only through the war, but through the important days of the post-war settlement.

To recapitulate, the dominant feeling in India is that although the main battlefield is thousands of miles away, India has an interest in the result of the war not less intimate than that of England. We feel that the cause of England is the cause of India; that as in the rise of England lie the whole hope of India, so if misfortune overcome England, our fortunes will be entombed. We are proud to share in the great fight for the preservation of the Empire; we are prepared to stake our very existence for that cause. This spirit is exemplified not only in the courage and martial spirit of the Indian regiments, who are fighting shoulder to shoulder with their British comrades in France and other zones of war; but in the universal acclaim which greeted the decision to send Indian regiments to the front. We see that behind the great clash of arms lies an equal great clash of principle between the desire to impose the will of Prussia upon the civilised world, and to resort to nauseating barbarities to achieve that end, and the desire to leave all peoples to work out their political destinies, and to carry into the battlefiled the traditions of chivalry inspired by that policy. We have no atom of hesitation in our unquestioning adherence to the policy which Great Britain has espoused. We have learnt to understand and appreciate the British people better, since they were tried by war; we have learnt the better to understand the debased materialism to which Great Britain and her Allies are opposed. And out of the

NOTABLE INDIANS ON THE WAR.

SIR P. M. MEHTA.

MR. DINSHAW EDULJI WACHA.

MR. BAL GANGADAR TILAK.

SIR NARAYAN CHANDAVARKAR.

DR. DEVAPRASAD SARBHADIKARI.

HON. SIR SIVASWAMI AIYAR.

MR. AMBICA CHARAN MUZUMDAR.

HON. PUNDIT SUNDAR LAL.

DR. RAMKRISHNA BHANDARKAR.

HON. SIR P. D. PATTANI.

MR. MIRZA ABBAS ALI BAIG, C.S.I., LL.D.

MR. V. P. MADAVA RAO.

SIR S. P. SINHA.

SIR P. C. CHATTERJEE.

MR. SAIN NIHAL SINGH.

H. H. THE AGA KHAN.

seething cauldron into which the Empire is plunged, there have arisen a firmer emulation of each other's good qualities, a mutual admiration and good comradeship, a closer tie, a more intimate bond of union. That which the most astute advocacy could not accomplish a common danger, met in common, has brought about. India has the proud satisfaction of knowing that she has done her duty, and that her services are recognised by the most eminent men of both Parties in the State. She has the assurance that when, in the fulness of time, the changed conditions affected by the war have to be expressed in the readjustment of imperial conditions, her reward will be fully commensurate not only with what she has done, but with all she is capable of doing in the Empire of the future.

That day, however, is not yet come. The toilsome and bloody road to peace has not yet been traversed. The sacrifices before us are enormous; they must be cheerfully met by the provision of more troops, more money, more munitions and everything we can contribute to the successful prosecution of the war. The strain of war increases with the duration of the war. We have to see that no matter how long or great the strain, there is no weakening of the robust confidence in the ultimate issue, or of the internal tranquillity which is of such priceless assistance to the Government. But this road we shall tread with the assured knowledge that no matter how great the sacrifice, it is inevitable; and that the results will be proportionate to it.

THE WAR AND THE EDUCATED CLASSES

BY THE HON. SIR P. S. SIVASWAMI AIYER, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.,

Member, Executive Council, Madras.

THE truth of the remark that there is a soul of goodness in things evil has never been more forcibly illustrated than by the remarkable feeling of solidarity between the component parts of the British Empire which has been brought about by the war that is now being waged in all the continents of the old world. No part of the Empire has been quicker than India to rally round the British flag or made more important contributions to the military defence of the Empire. The substantial expressions of enthusiastic loyalty which have poured forth from this country have, by their depth and extent, caused a feeling of agreeable surprise in Britain as they have upset the calculations of Germany. That the self-governing Colonies peopled by their own race should be anxious to support the Empire in the hour of danger was taken for granted by the British public. But, whether their fellow-subjects of alien races and creeds in India would share the same devotion to the Empire was a matter on which some misgivings were perhaps not unnatural. No doubt could have been entertained as to the loyalty of the ruling chiefs, or of the army in India. But what would be the attitude of the educated classes who were such frequent and severe critics of the administration and who did not hesitate to express freely their grievances and aspirations? Was their discontent of the nature of disaffection, or was it only such legitimate discontent as is felt and expressed by a constitutional opposition, by men who wish to remedy defects in the administration and make it more responsive to public opinion? Those who really knew the educated classes could not possibly feel any doubt as to their loyalty. In the nature of things it is inevitable that the views of a bureaucracy firmly convinced of the excellence of the existing administration and the views of its outside critics should in many respects be divergent. The advocates of order and of progress are apt to lay over-emphasis on their respective ideals and attach insufficient weight to the claims of the other ideal. If the political reformer in his impatient desire for progress makes light of the difficulties, the members of the bureaucracy, who are wedded to the existing order, are too much obsessed by them to move forward. Members of opposite parties are not always fair in their criticisms, nor over-ready to believe in the purity of their opponents' motives. But he would have been a superficial observer who inferred any tendency to disloyalty from the criticisms, very often sharp, of

the machinery or measures of the administration. Of all the various classes in India, it is the educated class that is really best qualified to judge of the benefits of the British rule and the advantages of inclusion in the British Empire. The masses of the people, no doubt, appreciate the blessings of peace, security and even-handed justice, but the vast majority of them have no knowledge of history and of the disorders and misgovernment from which the country was saved by British rule. They have little knowledge of the Germans or of their character or methods of administration, or of the comparative superiority of British administration to that of any other European nation. They are undoubtedly loyal, but their loyalty is of the passive type. The attitude of the villager is generally one of indifference to the remote abstraction of a monarch so long as his class customs and village institutions are untouched and is expressed in the saying : 'what matters it, if Rama reigns, or Ravana reigns.' This feeling is slowly and gradually being transformed into one of a little more interest in the affairs of the great world outside their villages and is largely due to the influence of the Press and those who can read. The expressions of loyalty and devotion to the British Raj that have been heard throughout the land have proceeded, not from the inarticulate masses, but from the literate classes and the thinking portion of the public. It is the same Press that in times of peace indulges in the most outspoken criticism of the Government that now sets itself to the publication, reverberation and diffusion of sentiments of loyalty. It is one of the most gratifying features of the present situation that the conduct of the Indian Press in dealing with the war has, with a few stray exceptions here and there, been inspired by sincere and unquestionable loyalty. The voices that are heard in the Press and on the platform, in councils and associations, are the voices of the educated classes. They realize more clearly than the rest of their countrymen the gravity of the issues at stake and the menace to liberty, humanity and civilization implied in the ascendancy of German militarism. Keen as the most advanced political reformer may be about progress, he knows that it is impossible for him to achieve his political ideal of a United India governed on constitutional lines, except under the fostering care of the nation which has set the example of political freedom and ordered progress to the rest of the world. The educated Indian is the product of British rule, and he owes everything that distinguishes him from the mass of his countrymen to the boon of English education which has broadened his mental outlook and imbued him with higher ideals and aspirations. His loyalty is not the merely instinctive loyalty of the Briton at home or the Colonial, but the outcome of gratitude for benefits conferred and of the conviction that the progress of India is indissolubly bound up with the integrity and solidarity of the British Empire. The loyalty of the Colonial is the loyalty of a petted child who is assiduously kept in good humour and cannot stand the strain of the slightest attempt at dictation or interference by the Mother Country, be it in the matter of the treatment of Asiatic immigrants or the question of tariffs or any other question. The educated Indian, on the other hand, knows that for as long a time as the practical politician need look into, the British connection is necessary to secure him against internal disorder and external aggression. The suspension of all political agitation in the country is proof of the desire of the educated classes to say or do nothing that may cause the least embarrassment to the Government. It is not that the carping critic of Government, the radical Indian doctrinaire, and the political missionary have to use the language of the *Times'* History of the War, been silenced, discountenanced or converted by the millions but that far more than the millions these various classes of critics have always realized that any weakening of the British Empire must affect the conditions necessary for the peaceful and steady development of an Indian nation. Agitation in peaceful times for political privileges is certainly not inconsistent with deep-seated loyalty. That the educated classes should desire to have a larger share in the direction of the administration or larger opportunities for the exercise of responsibility is not unnatural. How far such aspirations can or will be gratified is a question which the writer does not propose to consider.

[' With such a magazine as "The Indian Review" it is impossible to question the serious interest of our fellow subjects in the Dependency in all matters which affect world progress. The striking feature of such magazines is the detached and impartial spirit which animates the writers of the articles and the ready reproof of any utterance which belittles the high ambition of the Indian nation to deserve the respect of all nations.'— "The Review of Reviews."]

INDIA, THE WAR, AND THE ARMY

BY SIR VALENTINE CHIROL.

ONE of the most striking results of the war at home is the change of democratic opinion concerning the army and all that it connotes. The last mail brought out a remarkable letter which had just appeared in a London paper from Mr. James Sexton, one of the most influential labour leaders in England. He states that he had been a consistent and convinced opponent of a big navy as well as of any form of obligatory service in the army and that he had been content to put his trust in disarmament and arbitration. I presume that twelve months ago he would have regarded Bedlam or any other Lunatic Asylum as the proper place of residence for those who like myself, or to mention a far higher authority—the present Viceroy had for years past believed William II. to be working up to the present war for world-dominion as surely and as methodically as Bismarck had worked up half a century ago to the war between Prussia and Austria for domination in Germany and then to the war between Germany and France for domination in Europe.

It is, as Mr. Sexton himself puts it, "somewhat of a revolution" to find him and his friends even considering the merits or the necessity of military service. It is still more of a revolution that consideration of the question should have led such men to admit publicly that the opinions they had so strongly held have now been tried by the supreme test of a great national emergency and found utterly wanting. Had the duty of military service been recognised in time by the nation at large, we should not now, Mr. Sexton admits, be still on the Iser or the Aisne, but across the Rhine and well on the road to Berlin. Nor is this "revolutionary" change confined to the principle of military service. Hitherto it was the fashion in democratic circles to regard the army as an institution apart from and indeed almost inherently hostile to the "masses," a close preserve for the "classes," a bulwark of "reaction," if not an actual menace to "the liberties of the people," etc. All these shibboleths are being rapidly swept away. It is our fleets and our armies that have alone saved not only "the liberties of the people" but our national independence from destruction and in the splendid stand made by our troops in France against a long prepared scheme of overwhelming aggression, the only privilege of the "classes" has been to swell as never before the long drawn casualty lists from the battlefield. If democracy means the fusion of all classes of the community in a common sense of national duty, never has that meaning come so near to fulfilment as in the Territorial and other new armies in which aristocrats and artisans, professors and peasants, capitalists and workmen stand to-day shoulder to shoulder waiting for "the day," under no other compulsion than their own voluntary determination to do or die for their country. The victory which awaits them will be the crowning apotheosis of true democracy.

Conditions in India are necessarily very different, but during the few weeks I have spent here this time, I have been glad to note many indications of a somewhat analogous change in the attitude of the educated classes towards the Indian Army. It has always seemed strange to me that, amongst Indians whose ideal is an united India, so little appreciation was shown of an institution which embodies in so large and effective a measure the conception of Indian unity. In the Indian army as nowhere else in India you find men of all races and creeds and castes and classes in this vast sub-continent brought into the closest community of thought and action—Brahmans and non-Brahmans, Hindus and Mussulmans, Sikhs and Christians, Punjabis and Mahrattas, hill-men and low-landers. Their different idiosyncracies are as far as possible safeguarded and respected, but such distinctions as exist between them serve mainly to promote that generous emulation between different corps which stimulates every army in the world.

The educated classes in India have largely drawn their inspiration from a school of political thought in England which had undoubtedly been led by doctrinaire conceptions to ignore or to misconstrue the significance of the army in a democratic state. The revulsion of feeling which, as shown for example in Mr. Sexton's letter, is taking place at home under the impact of this great war, could not, I think, fail to exercise a far-reaching influence on educated opinion in India. The vast majority of educated Indians have thrown in their lot with the British Empire and have frankly recognised that the destinies of India are bound up as far as the human eye can reach into the future with the triumph of the

British cause, whilst every patriotic Indian has been stirred by the achievements of the Indian army in the field to a new sense of legitimate national pride.

The last time I saw my friend Mr. Gokhale the day before he left England in the autumn, he said to me laughingly: "I'm not sure that the Indian army won't do more for us Indians than all the Royal Commissions in the world," and he went on in a more serious vein to expound the hopes which he placed in the association of Indian and British troops on the battlefields of Europe in this supreme struggle for the liberties of the world. "For," as he put it, "you Englishmen are great fighters and if, as I am confident, my fellow-countrymen prove themselves worthy of the confidence you have shown in them by bringing them to Europe and stand shoulder to shoulder with you in the hour of need that will, I believe, make a far stronger appeal to the imagination of the British nation as a whole than any arguments which I could use."

For my own part I believe also that, when the war is over, the Indian army will prove more than ever to be an invaluable link between India and England. Whilst its splendid services at a most critical juncture will have won for it a high measure of public esteem and gratitude, it will return to India itself with an enhanced appreciation of the value of British leadership and especially of the regimental officer who understands and knows his own men and—witness the appalling casualty lists—is faithful to them unto death. I have for a long time past held that, just as larger openings are being found for Indians in the civil services of their country, so also larger openings will have to be found for Indians who from heredity or from individual predilection prefer to seek a military career. This is one of the problems which the war will certainly have brought to maturity as part of the work of Imperial reconstruction to be carried out if the many new ties created by common services and common sacrifices during the war are to inure to the permanent consolidation of the Empire in times of peace. I trust, therefore, that whenever it comes up for solution the educated Indians who claim to represent and to guide public opinion, will approach it in the broad spirit which, I am sure, Mr. Gokhale would have brought to bear upon it. I need not ask to be forgiven for quoting him once more. He had been much impressed by the long processions of young men marching last autumn through the streets of London from the recruiting offices to the depôts of the new armies—impressed by their earnestness of purpose as much as by their fine physique. "That is the sort of thing," he remarked to me, "that invests military service with a new meaning. It is the gift of civic duty interpreted to meet a great national crisis." And this was the gift which in its various forms Mr. Gokhale most ardently desired for his countrymen.

"The Indian Army has more than proved its excellence and its capacity to fight side by side with our Regular Troops. The soldiers of India are, perhaps, the most highly trained in the world. They are nearly all long-service men who know their job thoroughly from A to Z. They are hardy, brave, and full of cheerfulness in the field. * * The Indians have borne their share of the task of holding the line with a courage and endurance worthy of soldiers of any of the European armies engaged."—Mr. E. Ahmead Bartlett in the London *Telegraph*.

"That Indians were able to help the French, the Belgians, and ourselves in stopping a blow which the Germans had prepared for years is a thing of which they may be proud, and for which we should always be grateful to them. * * * As regards the future it could safely be predicted that new conditions would arise, the old demand of Indians for commissions in the army would be pressed; there would be demands for a more definite share in the Councils of the Empire, a larger part in the management of their own affairs, right to bear arms and to volunteer and a more equal social position."—Sir Francis Younghusband.

Indian Industrial Expansion After The War

BY SIR ROPER LETHBRIDGE, K.C.I.E.

NO publication either in India or in England has done more than the *Indian Review* to prepare the way for that great expansion of Indian Industries for which we all hope as one of the few happy results of that terrible calamity, the great European War. In its special articles, as well as in its admirably conducted "Industrial and Commercial Section", the *Review* has of late been a veritable storehouse of facts and statistics, with thoughtful and judicious reflections thereon, to serve this great and patriotic purpose. I desire in this paper briefly to show that these and similar Indian efforts—strongly supporting, as they have done, the patriotic work of such men as the late Mr. Justice Ranade, Mr. Tata, and Mr. Gokhale, and as Sir Gangadhar Chitnavis, Sir Dinshaw Petit, Sir Currimbhoy Ebrahim, Sir Vithaldas Thakersay, and others too numerous to mention—have not been without their due weight with the Government, and with public opinion both in India and in England.

It cannot be doubted that the relations of India with the rest of the British Empire, and particularly with the United Kingdom, will be profoundly altered by the War. It is already admitted in London that the part borne by the great Self-governing Dominions will entitle them to a larger representation in the Imperial Councils than they have hitherto possessed. But not even the most powerful or the most enthusiastic of the other members of our glorious Imperial family of nations has done more splendid work than India. At the first sound of danger to the Empire, there was a magnificent outburst of loyalty and martial ardour from Peshawar to Tuticorin, and from Quetta to Mandalay, which was shared alike by mighty Princes, like the Maharaja of Mysore and the Nizam, and by the humblest raiyats of Bengal and the Deccan. And since then in every one of the theatres of war, whether in Flanders or at the Dardanelles, whether in the Persian Gulf or in Africa, Indian valour has been conspicuous, and our gallant Indian troops have been acclaimed as worthy comrades by Canadians, Australians, and New Zealanders, equally with Englishmen, Scotsmen, and Irishmen. In these circumstances, ancient jealousies and obsolete prejudices will necessarily disappear—and the happy results will be seen—not merely in politics and administration, but also in the world of industry and commerce. For forty years past, Indian philanthropists have insisted on India's need of industrial expansion, and Indian politicians and statesmen have been practically unanimous in demanding for their industry and commerce the same freedom that has long been possessed by the Dominions. They have hitherto been met by the foolish and arrogant reply that British prejudices in these matters, though rejected by every other commercial and industrial nation in the world, including all the Oversea Dominions without exception, ought to over-ride Indian public opinion—even when Indian opinion is so unanimous as it is on the question of the excise-duties on the products of Indian cotton-factories. I think that, when the war is over, no English political party will take this arrogant view. Of course it goes without saying that, so long as the war lasts, no change involving anything controversial will be made, or even considered, by the Government; but that is all the more reason why Indian publicists and Indian statesmen should ponder in their own minds, and discuss publicly, the measures that should be taken for building up a new and reformed industrial fabric as soon as the war is over.

For it is an alarming fact that such trade statistics as are accessible for the months since the outbreak of hostilities, and the consequent destruction of German and Austrian trade with India, show that Neutral States, including especially Japan, Java and the United States, are already hard at work with well-considered schemes for the capture of this great volume of derelict trade. Within two months after the first declaration of war in Europe, the Government of the United States of America had a Mission touring in India to report on the immediate possibilities of American trade with India; and the Calcutta *Englishman* of October 29, 1914, commenting on this remarkable fact, confidently predicted that the country will be "over-run with American merchandise" before any new factories in India have even commenced working! The enterprising Dutch Government of Java has always kept in the closest possible touch with the markets of India.

But it is from the go-a-head Japanese that we have most to fear in the keen competition for the trade openings left by the departure of the Germans and Austrians. In textile manufactures, in glass and glassware, and in a dozen other lines, it is stated on good authority that Japan has already enormously increased her sales in India—every part of the country is flooded with Japanese matches—and the Indian trade in hosiery, now a large and very progressive one, is already almost monopolised by Japanese goods. These plain facts show that Indian industry must be up and doing without delay, while there is still time for adequate preparation, if it is to compete successfully with Japan, Java, and the United States—not to speak of the temporarily disabled industries of Germany and Austria, and of continental Europe generally, that will assuredly again enter the arena after the war—in the revival of Indian trade that will follow the conclusion of peace in Europe.

Mr. Alfred Chatterton, C.I.E., the able and energetic Director of Industries in Mysore—whose loss to Madras and British India has been Mysore's great gain—has opportunely published an excellent collection of papers on this subject, entitled "Industrial Evolution in India." And it must be admitted that Mr. Ley's department, and most of the Local Governments, and many of the more advanced Feudatory States like Mysore and Indore and Gwalior, have furnished us with a vast amount of valuable instruction, often founded on long and costly experimental enterprises, all showing the immense natural resources of India in every form of raw material, and the infinite possibilities of national wealth that await the development of those natural resources. For instance, in the last session of the Imperial Legislative Council, the Hon. Mr. Clark, replying to a question by the Hon. Rai Sitanath Rai Bahadur as to the desirability of Government assistance for the Indian sugar industry, made a long statement setting forth in detail the great and costly efforts that the Government have made with this object in view in every suitable district in the country. I may mention also the admirable report (clearly summarised in the *Hindu* of April 3) of the Industrial Committee specially appointed by the Government of the United Provinces to consider the circumstances resulting from the war. Take also the speech of Sir James Meston at Mirzapur, reported in the *Indian Review* of December last—or the speech of the Hon. Rai Bahadur Sala Bishambar Nath to the United Provinces Chamber of Commerce on Feburary 27th—or the address of Colonel Agabeg at the annual meeting of the Mining and Geological Institute of India—and I might mention a hundred others.

And yet, with all these experiments and reports and speeches and addresses—with all our wealth of raw material, of labour, of skill, and of capital—we have nothing practical as yet to show for it all. Capital is not attracted, as it was in Java, when the Dutch Government announced their intention of capturing the Indian sugar trade.

Why is this? I turn, for the answer to this question, to the address of the Indian Merchants of Bombay, in their Chamber assembled, to the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence. We all know that the Indian merchants of Bombay, equally with the European merchants of that great centre of industrial and commercial activity, are a body second to none in the world for their industrial knowledge and their commercial enterprise. The Chamber pointed out to Mr. Ley that, with the cessation of German and Austrian unfair competition, there was every reason to expect that Indian capital and the Indian labour would easily be able to capture the enormous trade in such lucrative lines as glass and glassware, aniline and alizarine dyes, matches, chemical products, sugar, and many other commodities generally used by the countless millions of India—provided only that the Imperial Government would give the Indian investor some hope that, after the conclusion of peace, these nascent industries should not be handed over once more to the tender mercies of those Protectionists, commercial countries like Japan and Java and the United States, who are always able, by screwing up their tariffs and increasing their subsidies to a sufficient degree, instantly to destroy all competition in a helpless Free Trade country.

Moreover, as soon as the war is over, there can be little doubt that the arch-Protectionists of Germany and Austria Hungary will at once recommence their predatory attacks on the vast field of Indian trade, and will use every device of tariffs, drawbacks, subsidies, and the other well-known means by which, in the period preceding the war, they were rapidly securing most lucrative monopolies.

The Indian merchants of Bombay were able to show Mr. Ley that the Government of India could easily obviate the danger of these insidious attacks, and thereby attract the necessary Indian

enterprise and Indian capital for establishing the great industries of which they had spoken, without in any way violating the canons of that "Free Trade" theory that is so dear to many English politicians. For even the very Apostles of Free Trade—great theorists like John Stuart Mill—have admitted that the theory of even the strictest Pharisees has permitted, nay encouraged a certain amount of safeguard for nascent industries when attacked by foreign aggression. Moreover, as just now by far the most important of foreign Protectionist aggressors, Germany and Austria-Hungary, are negligible quantities in consequence of the war, all that is needed for Indian interests for the moment is a public pledge by the Government of India that, when the trade of India once more returns to its normal courses after the close of the war, they will not permit foreign countries to step in and capture, by their Protectionist devices, the young Indian industries that may have been created by Indian enterprise in the meantime. It is obvious that so much as this can fairly and properly be demanded by India, even from a Free Trade Government—and the demand can hardly be resisted after recent events, even by a Government that is simply and solely a War Government. More than this cannot be thought of in present circumstances, nor is it necessary.

It must be borne in mind by all Indian politicians and economists that no radical change of policy—nor indeed any measure committing Government to such a change—is possible during the war. Some of my Indian friends have been hoping for some measure of Imperial Preference, such as that suggested in the Viceroy's Legislative Council by Sir Gangadhar Chitnavis and the other Indian members, from the interesting fact that the new Secretary of State for India in the Coalition Cabinet is Mr. Chamberlain, the great Apostle of Imperial Preference, while the Under-Secretary of State is Lord Islington (Chairman of the Indian Public Service Commission), a distinguished member of the Royal Commission that instituted Imperial Preference between Canada and the West Indies. It is quite true that the *Memorandum*, drawn up by Lord Islington after his appointment as Governor of New Zealand, that is appended to the Report of the Royal Commission (*Blue Book*, Cd. 5369), ably established the value of Imperial Preference between Canada and the West Indies, and inferentially between India and the rest of the British Empire. But it is quite certain that neither of these statesmen, whatever may be their personal or private opinions, would countenance any departure from the fiscal *status quo* in India so long as the war lasts. Whatever is done in the meantime must not offend the prejudices of Free Traders.

But there is no reason why Indians should not be up and doing on the lines indicated above, that can offend no prejudices. Let us not forget that while the imports into India of glass and glassware from the United Kingdom were diminished in 1914-15 by Rs. 5,14,000 from those in 1913-14, the imports from Japan in the same period increased from Rs. 15,81,299 to Rs. 19,65,232! Indeed, in March, 1915, the imports of glassware from Japan were Rs. 3,32,880—more than half the total imports! While in the vast Indian match-trade, the amazing activity of Japan is still more marked—her imports of matches into India rose from Rs. 39,06,824 in 1913-14 to Rs. 69,07,616 in 1914-15—and while in March, 1914, she sent us matches to the value of Rs. 3,12,876; in March, 1915, she sent to the value of Rs. 11,68,149! The triumphs of Protectionist international trade have, perhaps, never been more marked than in this record—except in the records of the capture of the Indian sugar-trade by the Protectionist Dutch Government of Java.

And, yet, it is admitted by all that the three industries in which India possesses the most enormous advantages over every industrial country in the world, if only they were safeguarded from foreign unfair inroads, are those of sugar, matches, and glass.

Lord Hardinge has shown himself in several directions a true friend to the peoples of India. Now that the time of his retirement is approaching, he has, offered to him by the circumstances of the great war, such an opportunity of endearing himself to the millions of the subjects of the King-Emperor as has never been given to any one of his predecessors. He has only to say the word, and factories will spring up in every province of the Empire as if by magic, as they have done and are doing in Japan and Java, bringing lucrative employment to every willing worker, and diffusing wealth wherever they appear.

REV. C. F. ANDREWS, M.A., Delhi.—"I read the *Indian Review* month by month with the greatest interest and always find more solid matter in it, especially on the economic side in which I am specially interested than in any other Indian Journal."

THE WAR & SOME LESSONS FOR INDIA

BY SIR NARAYAN CHANDAVARKAR, K.C.I.E.

JUST a few months after His Majesty the King Emperor had come to India for the Coronation Durbar at Delhi in 1911, and awakened the soul of his Indian subjects by knitting their hearts afresh to the British Throne and the heart of England, a high-placed British official in India, speaking to me on the subject of His Majesty's visit and the wave of loyalty which had swept the country at that time to the delight of all, remarked: "It has been splendid but how long will it last? I am doubtful." In my humble way I answered I entertained no doubt it would last and fructify. This war has proved that the loyalty of India, to which impetus was given by the attractive personality of His Majesty, is sound. I notice that by some thoughtful men a distinction is made between the loyalty of the Indian masses—the large volume of our villagers—and the educated classes. It is remarked that the loyalty of the former is *passive* and that of the latter *active* and more reasoned. Some have gone the extent of observing that our villagers are indifferent who rules—whether "Rama or Ravana." I cannot subscribe to that observation. It is true that when the times were disturbed continually, peace was rare and security of life and property constantly threatened, the Indian villager, unaccustomed to organised and settled rule, thought of all rulers as alike and hence the proverbial tradition putting Rama and Ravana on the same level. But a century and more of settled Government under the British has changed the villagers' point of view and in the villages I have been to during the last six months I have met villagers expressing in their own way their keen sense of appreciation of British rule and hating the very idea of a change of Government. In that respect the educated classes and the uneducated masses feel the same. It is no empty and conventional expression to say that the war has brought out the fine spirit and faith of India, both high and low, townsman and villager alike.

The war has taught and is teaching more. That Germany was, ever since her success in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, preparing for another war with a view to crush France was more or less believed but none expected that the dogs of war would be let loose so soon and that Germany would be found so lost to all sense of shame and morality as she has been daily proving to be. The war came like a thief when all had seemed secure and safe—when, in fact, we were all laying the unction to our souls that modern civilization with the march of industry and science made for comity of nations and the brotherhood of man. But the civilization has proved a burden. Germany, ruled by a military caste, stands before us as a warning against caste rule and ascendancy. The materialistic spirit of the nineteenth century—nations competing with one another for commercial supremacy—is laid bare before us in all its nakedness. Science which professed to heal man has come to destroy him and his home by means of submarines, zeppelins, bombs, and poisonous gases. And the grim situation was summed up by the *Times* in its Literary Supplement of March 11, when it said: "As they," (the Germans), "assume that anything may be done for victory, so we have assumed that anything may be done for money. That is our doctrine as foolish as the doctrine of war and based upon the same trust in animal instincts and disbelief in the spirit. It is because we have not valued the beauty of our past so much as money that we have destroyed it and made no beauty of our own to take its place."

The war has enabled us to see life, individual and national, in its true perspective and to discern in hard lesson the ancient truth oft obscured that a nation *lives* truly and worthily only when it pursues material wealth as subservient to spiritual ends—for the cultivation and exaltation of its spirit of righteousness exemplified by the good and simple lives of its people, the pure tone of its literature and arts, the healing effects of its science, and the unsoiled character of its public men running on the same plane of high principle whether in public or private. "We are learning to see a new value in truths we learnt at our mother's knee," says Professor Jacks, Editor of the *Hibbert Journal*, in his article on "England's Experience with the Real Things," published in the *Yale Review*.

With these general reflections let me turn to some more specific, simple, and clear lessons of the

war as we have learnt them so far. They are as follows:—

(1) A people's greatness depends not on their numbers or the extent of their territory but on their self-less spirit. A nation may be small and even weak as compared to others, and yet it can stand up and fight the foes of God and liberty and serve humanity and earn its reward in the Eternal Book of Life if its soul is great. Witness Belgium and its King and people. As the Belgian poet Emily Vaerhaeren puts it: "Belgium has proved the most vital rampart of modern civilisation. Before this sudden baptism we were hardly a nation at all. We have now discovered ourselves." And Cardinal Mercier's Pastoral Letter! What a precious gift! It counsels Belgians and through them the world that the laws of conscience are sovereign laws—that "suffering passes away, the crown of life for our souls, the crown of glory for our nation, shall not pass away."

(2) The war has given us heart-beats in the form of phrases which will and ought to live and endure in our being as the pure wells of life. I cite but two, though more can be gleaned and given. Note what a common British soldier living in the trenches at the front wrote: "*I am living on the top of the fulness of life*"—a phrase of which it has been rightly said that even that artistic master of phrases, Louis Stevenson, could not have perhaps coined it. It is when we struggle with life's difficulties and endure hardships for God, country, and righteousness that we see how life is full and worthy. It is then that the sigh of war gives the song of God. Here is another phrase:—"*Anonymous courage*" used by Mons. Poincare, President of the French Republic, when he praised the soldiers of the Allies for the glorious anonymity of their courage—for fighting without any hope of reputation, unknown to fame and unadvertised except in the mass as soldiers. In an advertising age, when great men of whom the world and newspapers speak are mentioned and praised almost daily, it is well to know and be reminded that "the real hero of the war" is, as *Punch* described in his Cartoon of December 30, 1914, the ordinary soldier—the private—who fights, dies, is buried—no one knows where—"somewhere in France or Flanders."

And among these heroes of "anonymous courage," our brethren of the Indian army at the front, fighting for our King with dauntless spirit and covering themselves with glory and reflecting it on their country—our own flesh and blood—stand not behind their British and French compeers. There is the battle-cry—advance India with England! It is the forerunner of the song which shall follow peace for India and England—is it not? That ought to be typical of all life, whether in war or peace. "Anonymous courage," the courage that seeks no fame but does its duty known only to God—"that loves Heaven's silence more than fame."

(3) Till before the war we were all *evolutionists*—Darwin's disciples. The war has effected a sudden change. The President of the British Association for the Advance of Science questioned but sometime ago whether *evolution* is the only right word and theory of Man's individual, social and national progress and emancipation, and he declared as his belief that a great change in characteristics does not imply slow attainment but that many such changes come immediately. In other words, Man educates; God only regenerates. Witness the lesson of the war on its temperance side. In 1840 Life Insurance Companies were known to charge a total abstainer ten per cent. more than the ordinary premium because they regarded him as "thin and watery and as mentally cranked, in that he repudiated the good creatures of God as found in Alcoholic Drinks." Till but the war to drink wine and whisky was considered fashionable and respectable. But in a trice Russia gives up her drink; France follows; England is following; His Majesty King George has set the example and the cause of temperance weak but eight months ago wins—a moral miracle!

(4) The sacredness of motherhood and the sanctity of the marriage tie are *now* realised more vividly than before the war. Before the war, in prosperity and peace, wealth and luxury accumulated, and the motherhood of purity declined. Liberty was turning into license in Europe. The war has had an awakening effect. Marriage is in favour. Couples living in "free union" in the name of that bastard phrase of the new civilisation—"free love"—have been in France and elsewhere legitimising their relation. In England Archbishops have been advising volunteers to marry before going to the front:

"Better be married a minute than die an old maid."

"Men save the country, women the race."

"Man is progress but woman is tradition."

There are war's awakening angels of Peace!

(5) The war has also taught us that mere development of the intellect is no education. Education must be of the heart. "Kultur" and "Cultur" we worshipped before the war forgetting how Germany had fallen slowly from the original. We now examine, find and are instruct-

ed that those words did not occur in "Deutsches Worterbuch" of Jacob and Grimm, the publication of which began in 1860; that in Meyer's "Konversationes Lexicon" published in 1896 the words meant the cultivation of the spiritual life of man; but that from 1870 they slowly developed their present meaning—viz., the brutal energy of the Superman—with the feeling heart nowhere but the aggressive diplomat with earth-hunger and demoniac spirit everywhere.

(6) Above all, here is the greatest lesson of the war taught by the *heart of a dog*: A boat-load of the survivors of H.M.S. *Formidable* which was sunk on January 1st, 1914, were landed at Lyme Regis. One of the crew, W. S. Cowan, was placed on the *Pilot Boat Hotel*. He was believed to have died and all attempts to revive him failed. The doctors gave him up and went to where the rest lay to attend to them. Just then, a dog named "Lassie" came, lay alongside Cowan's body, its heart on his, and it went on licking his face. In half an hour Cowan opened his eyes, moved his legs and hands—and the dog's bark of joy attracted notice, and it was discovered that "the warmth of the dog's body against Cowan's heart and the constant licking of his face had induced circulation."

Cowan revived and lived!

God in the dog's heart!

"I am in the hearts of all," says God in our Gita—even a dog's. And yet men kill one another?

The war has taught wisdom—from even a dog.

To sum up, we stand disillusioned by the war. True religion—the love of God and Man—"the real wealth" as our *Bhagavat Purana* calls it, has come by its own—the spiritual is asserting itself.

For India,—here is new light on its ancient path—and for England too—the whole of the British Empire. It is the most dreadful war but it has been the greatest awakener! Our politics and industrialism must needs be dominated by the spiritual force of the loving heart, which shall burn by its consuming fire our race pride, our caste pride, and our intellectual self-conceit and enable us to strive for political and industrial advancement as humble worshippers in the Temple of Him, Who is One without a Second and Who is Truth and Love.

Will all this spiritual awakening which we witness last when England wins, peace comes, and the civilised world begins afresh? Let us hope and pray eagerly it may! Lord Bryce with his authority as historian has already given the warning against the lowering of ideals generally following a great war. And Lord Bryce's testimony as a historian finds countenance in our own Puranic traditions. Arjuna wavered, Shri Krishna discoursed and roused the soul of the soldier by teaching him to do his duty for duty's sake. Arjuna fought with all the faith and fervour of God's devotee. And Arjuna with Shri Krishna's aid won. Peace followed—a fresh prosperity. Arjuna with the lively memory cherished in his heart of the celestial song discoursed to him at the beginning of the war to hearten him asked Shri Krishna to sing the same song again. And Shri Krishna answered "Gone is the Song. Not again." May God grant it shall not be so with us when the war ends, Britain wins, and peace follows. May it be the peace of God for our Empire—with the war and inequalities and tragedies of race, caste and creed ended, too, throughout the British Empire and through its righteous spirit throughout the world!

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THE WAR AND WESTERN CIVILISATION

BY DR. SIR RAMAKRISHNA GOPAL BHANDARKAR, K.C.I.E.

IN 1857-58, while I was a student in the Elphinstone College, Bombay, Mr. Sidney Owen, who was sent out as Professor of History and Political Economy in that year, read out to us passages from a number of books, expressive of sympathy and love for mankind in general without distinction of race, creed or the stage of civilization arrived at. In such literature as I read privately, I also observed suggestions of Universal Love and of the "Parliament of Man and the Federation of the World." In later years, I found in European literature evidence of the rise and progress of a liberal religious faith, based upon a newly acquired acquaintance with the religious truth contained in other religions than Christianity, especially in those of India. The effect of this seemed to me to be to neglect differences and bring about mutual appreciation and sympathy between the followers of the various religions, calculated ultimately to strengthen the feeling of unity among the different races of mankind. This liberal religion

laid particular stress upon the purification and elevation of the human heart and passed by or neglected artificial dogmas of a nature to cause bitterness and bring about feuds. So that there loomed before me a brighter political and spiritual future for mankind.

But there soon appeared black clouds in the horizon. The Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71 was the parent of one of these. Bismarck's policy of achieving dominant power for Prussia, and subsequently Germany in Europe, led him to inflict such humiliation on the French nation as it was impossible for that nation to forget. The two countries have since that time been looking askance at each other and increasing their armaments and seeking alliances with a view to try final conclusions. In the meantime, Bismarck's policy of dominance in Europe was considered too narrow by his pupil, the young Kaiser, and he widened it to a policy of world-domination. This, of course, was impossible unless England's sea-power was reduced, if not destroyed, and England humbled as France was in 1871. Thus there began a naval rivalry between the two countries. Things went on in this way; each of the dominant powers suspecting the others and looking at them with a jealous eye. The spirit of humanity, *i.e.*, of sympathy for mankind in general, which, I believed, was making progress in Europe, gave way to the spirit of nationality, *i.e.*, the wish of one nation to promote its own selfish interests to the sacrifice of those of others. Thus the terrible war, now in progress, began. These interests are only of a material nature, such as the promotion of trade and of manufactures. And for the promotion of these material interests, *i.e.*, for the attainment of more loaves and fishes, what is the price Europe is paying! The blood of hundreds of thousands of human beings is being poured at the altar of the War-God; the moral sense is being corrupted; cathedrals and other works of art are being demolished; asphixiating gases are being used for putting the enemy to a cruel death; wells are poisoned, women violated; and unoffending people massacred. If the current reports are true, one at least of the combatants is guilty of these inhuman and beastly deeds. Such are the extremes to which the desire for material aggrandisement has driven one of the foremost nations of Europe. The spirit of human sympathy and love seems to have entirely disappeared, and "the Parliament of Man" has evaporated into thin air.

The truth appears to me to be, that material civilization has alone made incredible progress in Europe, and the spiritual elevation of man, which was so much talked about, had no solid foundation and melted away under the strain of the desire for material good. And to justify this change, even a new philosophy has been invented, and the Superman for whose aggrandisement all men of ordinary powers should be sacrificed as a matter of right has come into prominence. The old German philosophy, that of Kant, Fichte, Schleiermacher and others, the tendency of which is to ennoble the human spirit, has paled away before that of Nietzsche. The reason may be that ennobling philosophy is all good for talk and insincere admiration; but when material interests come in for consideration and the desire for securing them becomes strong, it is unceremoniously flung away. This is the case with individuals as well as nations; and when they happen to be intelligent, they devise a new philosophy to justify their course of action.

We are afraid in India of this new philosophy, which is calculated to justify the sacrifice of us, weak people, for the aggrandisement of the German Superman; but thanks to the British Navy, we are free from such a contingency. No Indian wishes to change masters. There is every likelihood after this war is over of India's being thoroughly consolidated with other parts of the British Empire, so as to form a harmonious whole and of our coming into closer intimacy with Englishmen. We are proud of our Gurkhas, Punjabis, Sikhs, Baluchis and Marathas, being invited to co-operate with Englishmen in fighting for the liberties of mankind, and are proud also of the brilliant achievements of our men on the field of battle.

THE SIMLA NEWS.—"It is refreshing to meet a magazine, edited in India, above the ordinary literary level. Such is the *Indian Review*. The subjects treated are dealt with by writers specially competent to deal with them. It is a magazine every intelligent European should read."

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REFLECTIONS ON THE WAR

BY HON. DR. DEVAPRASAD SARVADHIKARY, C.I.E., M.A., LL.D.,

(Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University.)

CULTURE—an honoured name hitherto—has in the eyes of many come to be covered with shame and ignominy because of its barbarous and unwarrantable parading in connection with the atrocities of the present war. It is inexplicably forgotten that spelt with a capital "K," the terrible commodity has no real affinity or concern with the improvement or adornment of individual mind or character or national character for the matter of that, which is the true adjurcent of real culture. 'Kultur' merely connotes State efficiency. The State like a gigantic brain controls as through on elaborate system of nerve, the life of its citizens. The individual is washed, clothed, fed, educated and almost put to bed by State agency where Kultur reigns, and in its widest sense it is ultimately intended for the purposes of the maintenance and increase of efficiency of the State. And what wonder it panders to State-Ruffianism.

The Old Heraclitan strife conceived as the father of all things—the old rule of Ate or discord—the Pagan view of Fate as the arbiter of the destinies of nations as of individuals is the cult of Kultur. An eternal rush and eternal cycle of misery and unrest as the goal-less goal is the order of the day.

There is another prevailing misapprehension. Sometimes one hears of the ancient wisdom of this country as the parent of German idealism. The claim may be partly true; but only in form, and not in substance. It is a matter of history that some of the Upanishads translated into Persian by Dara Shikoh fell into the hands of a wandering French scholar, Auquentil Duperron, who rendered them into French. Schopenhaur drew his inspiration from Duperron's French translation of Dara Shikoh's Persian version. They sought Eastern lore and wisdom to assuage burning thirst. But they chose not the pure and undefiled fountain-head but preferred turbid streams turned Westward by amiable but *unentitled* dilettantes. The stream of German idealism rising from such a source may not inaptly be said to have ended with Hegel, and such may be the historical establishment of the paternity. But there are moral qualifications without which study of the books of wisdom is worse than useless, nay, positively injurious. Under colour of "biological necessity" and for undoing "historical wrong," whatever that may signify, poisoning of wells, petrol shells, obnoxious gases and abounding lies are but the least of equipments for the overthrow of civilization and the established order of things. Modern Moloch thus raises his altar on which individuals, families, institutions, nay the eternal verities are to, be sacrificed. The everlasting harmony of the All, correcting and chastening and uplifting Its surroundings, is to be banished for ever, and all that is Right and Good and True are alike to end, in order that Wrong alone should reign supreme and nothing be left to compare it with but its own ghastly self. Engines of destruction are to be directed not merely to conquest political supremacy but for purposes, according to authorised War Books, which makes decency and propriety blush and shiver. Races and systems that are in the way must be wiped off the face of the earth.

The militarist ideal had always been Germany's evil genius—an incubus that she had again and again sought to overthrow; but she always succumbed in the end. This is true about the Germany of Tacitus down through the Germany of Carlovingians, and further down through the Germany of the Middle Ages to the latter day Prussianised Germany we know so well.

And not Germany alone has been affected; in the sphere of business and industry, in science and art, as in military organization, the world has been hypnotized more or less by German ideals and German methods. Rigid absolutism has been rampant, of which the Hegalian Absolute was but a ghostly forerunner, going hand in hand with a rigid mechanism, crushing in the end by sheer mass and dead weight, by drill and routine, all instinct and initiative of free play of spontaneity. Most potent, unfortunately, has this hypnotism been in the world of education,—the academic world. The ancient story of Indra and Virochan as to the choice between wisdom and power has been re-enacted in the field of German thought. Maddened by lust of power they saw the vision of a world committing suicide, as a consummation to be devoutly wished for, and in the name of Zarathustra sounded the trumpet of Ahriman. Great mad men, hierarchs of a mad world!

Purification by fire and sword invoked for their own betterment will be, no doubt, left to do its work for the permanent good of the world. Now, that the militarist or barrack view of human life and society have been seen bare in all its ugliness and deformity, we may hope that the educational, social, and the economical ideals of the modern world will be freed from the baneful spell hitherto cast upon them. German history, German economics, German philosophy manufactured to imperial order as so much ammunition of war, as so much gun-cotton and glycerine have gone the way of all such ammunition—have violently exploded as all explosive must do in the end. And the authority of the entire Theological and Philosophical Faculties of German Universities will fail to impose again on a disillusionised world. Though captive Science may for a time be harnessed to the chariot of Power, she will be freed from her chain by the angel of Wisdom, which even now hovers over the din and tumult of a battling world.

The same moral forces which, as the Indian tradition has it, has twenty-one times denuded the world of a rampant militarism, will do so again—for the twenty-second time—and may it be the last time in the world's history.

India's share in this world struggle, though she is intensely interested in the stake, has been infinitesimal so far, though our rulers are generous enough to magnify them, beyond proportions. What little has been achieved has been largely due to the magnetic personality of Lord Hardinge, who impresses and influences all that come across him.

The least of India's contributions towards this Titanic struggle has been that of Bengal, though it is not the least significant. Advancement of learning with which the University has been identified for 60 years has achieved notable results in this direction and in a way least expected and least thought of.

The history of the Bengal Field Ambulance Corps, with its chequered career, is soon told. Soon after the war broke out and India was called upon to play her part, the President of the Bengal Medical Association offered the services of the Association in the work of mercy that must be associated with fields of carnage. The Viceroy was good enough to reply that the offer would be borne in mind and accepted in proper time. The offer was repeated through the great Town Hall Meeting that expressed the nation's sentiments towards the Throne in this awful crisis, and before it could be materialised a number of the Indian Medical Graduates were, in consultation with the President of the Medical Association who had enlisted them for the proposed Ambulance Corps, absorbed as members of the orthodox and official medical corps for doing field duty in different parts of the world. They have quietly gone for unknown periods to unknown destinations on a few hours' notice, in true soldier fashion, to do their duty. A dying wife here, a sick child there, aged parents elsewhere, were left behind to be cared for by their country and their Government. What long and sustained political agitation failed to achieve was quietly achieved over-night, for the Hour had come and the Man had been found. And the man was Lord Hardinge. Our medical graduates who were standing by as members of the Field Ambulance Corps and who never thought that their degrees by themselves would be direct passports to the honoured glory of their King's Commission, were summoned to service by the Viceroy to take their place by the side of I. M. S. men and R. M. Service men. Others and many more were soon found to take their place. The Bengal Volunteer Field Ambulance Corps which has been formed and drilled into shape, is awaiting employment in a suitable sphere. The organisers, when nearly ready with their land organisation, were told by the authorities that a Floating Hospital in the Mesopotamia regions would be more acceptable than a land corps, and with a phenomenal rapidity the "ideal" troop transport boat, "the very thing" as an European high official enthusiastically called it, was discovered, turned into an up-to-date and fully equipped Hospital. It received the blessings of the community and the rulers in due form, was named the *Bengali* in the people's name, and was on her way to her mission of mercy when cruel fate overtook her opposite Madras. But the organisers did not lose heart. Within 15 minutes of this crushing news reaching one of the Secretaries of the movement, he wired up to Simla offering further service in whatever other capacity might be deemed fit. His committee have ratified this offer and a field hospital with 200 beds is being equipped. Their renewed offers of service have been accepted, and they will soon go to the front as a Land force.

The way that the Secretary put the case to himself and to his colleagues is characteristic. "Bengal must not exaggerate this loss. The foundering of the *Bengali* has not cost the people in money more than a single shot of a Dreadnaught

or one of its single lifeboats costs. Bengal wins by this loss in public esteem."

Its graduates and under-graduates showed themselves ready to go wherever and whenever they were told to go, and they are still ready to go. That is no little gain when one contemplates the picture drawn of our medical graduates by the first Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University fifty-seven years ago:—

"It may also be doubted whether the social and religious peculiarities of the natives of this country have not contributed as powerfully as any constitutional infirmity or defect to that listlessness, and that indisposition to locomotion and adventure which have painfully distinguished some of the most promising graduates of the Medical College from the members of their profession of other races."

As I ventured to remind the Convocation of the Calcutta University on the 6th March last in the presence of his Excellency the Chancellor, this was a faulty and overdrawn picture even then. Almost while this picture was being portrayed a Graduate of the Medical College of Bengal, who had been Naval Surgeon in Her Majesty's gunboat "Fire Queen", in the Burma waters and became Military Surgeon later on, helped by timely warning and personal exertions in the defence of Gazipore during the stirring times of the Indian Mutiny, and as Surgeon-in-Charge marched with the victorious column of Havelock and Niell to the final relief of Lucknow and won the aprobation of his Commanders, his Governor and his people. The race has not died out as some thought, but must have steadily and noiselessly multiplied. The man and the hour have found them out again, and that man is our large-hearted, far-seeing, and sympathetic Viceroy, whom dire personal injuries and a cruelly quick succession of bereavements touch not where public duties are concerned. The brave and generous way in which he has consented at duty's call to be with us in the critical times ahead, is thoroughly characteristic. Self-less devotion to India in Lord Hardinge's cult and creed which was fully shared in, nay, inspired by his departed and dear consort.

India has responded to the Empire's call with a thorough zeal and will. Elsewhere it is her Princes, her men of wealth and valour that have been most in evidence. In Bengal it is mostly graduates and under-graduates of the University that are to the fore.

THE WAR AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE.

BY MR. V. P. MADHAVA RAO, C.I.E.

(DEWAN OF BARODA.)

THE World-War has now lasted for over ten months. The tremendous events that have taken place in hurrying succession had at first the effect of stupefying the people by providing a dramatic contrast to the more slow-paced incidents of peace. But now with the passage of time the shrill agony of the first weeks of War has been toned through a mist of tears and suffering. People are now more inclined to look from the crude facts to the ideal aspect of the World-Conflict: to turn the searchlight more into themselves and enquire into the underlying significance of the great events and the direction of their natural tendencies and character. This has been the case not only with the nations of Europe but also with the peoples of India.

In India, the enormous outburst of enthusiasm for the cause of the Allies is a deeply significant sign of the times. And the key to the whole situation is Loyalty. Loyalty may be merely devotion to the person of the Sovereign, and instances of this are not wanting in Indian Life. Bad Rulers like Malhar Rao, in spite of their tyranny, have derived advantage out of this national devotion to the hereditary principle, and inspired the affection not only of their Hindu but also of their Mussalman subjects. But that is not the sense merely in which Loyalty can be said to explain the present psychology of the Indian people. Rather it is Loyalty in the sense of being true to oneself and in consequence to the rest of mankind, that is the moving impulse. And this is the result of their wonderful religious discipline cumulated through the process of the ages, with which—even in the assertive theism of Islam—is intimately permeated an idealistic system of philosophy. This religious discipline, part moral, but more especially informed with spirituality, has stood the Indian in good stead through all the vicissitudes of his national misfortunes and turmoils. In certain maters, the West has just begun to realise its conscience and set aright its ethical standards.

Take, for instance, the question of drink. It is a curious commentary on Western Civilization that it was only when a dire material necessity—namely, that of providing munitions for the War—had to be faced that the far-reaching spiritual significance of a great national evil had begun to be realised. But in India, far back in the immemorial ages of our heroic history, a situation precisely similar to that now noticeable in England was created when the Yadavas brought on themselves a murderous War through a frenzy of drink. As a result the clan was practically annihilated. It is a favourite saying of the Puraniks that the Bhagwat which tells the story of the life of Krishna was an epic on the evil of Drink. In literature, this wholesome tradition against drink was built up by epic, and fable and song; and it was later embalmed in law. The Code of Manu made Drink one of the five Deadly Sins—"Mahapatakas"—for which there was no expiation. And so with the other evils, the warning instincts of Indian Civilisation had prepared its people through tradition, and myth, and Sacred Law against their consequences. The Mahabharat was intended to illustrate the evils of gambling and the lust for dominion. The Ramayan showed the dire consequences of coveting one's neighbour's wife. These lessons and experiences have sunk deep into the consciousness of the people: and if we find to-day Hindu soldiers fighting in Europe and the other theatres of War in a spirit of doing their duty for duty's sake only, and without any expectation of gain or reward, it is the result of the cumulative national experience and spiritual discipline of Hinduism. And in this regard, Mussalman soldiers share with their comrades in the common ethics of Orientalism.

Duty, then, is their ideal: duty pertaining to a man's station in life, to be done as a means of the perfecting of character and the heightening of personality. That is the kernel of the sublime gospel of the Gita. It often distresses me to find attempts made in the West to reconcile Christian principles with War. The failure is due, I believe, to their defective theology with its ideas of creation which are irreconcilable with the eternity of the Soul. Regarding this last doctrine, however, there is no misgiving in the mind of the Indian. The Indians (Hindu or Sufi alike) have a firm faith in the undying nature of the spirit and its ultimate perfection in the union with the Universal Atman.

This theology of the West has far-reaching political consequences. With its Personal God, it develops into the Tribal God with barriers of race and country, and aggressive national antagonisms. The net result of the religious life, as manifested in national conduct in Europe, has been the inordinate development of ungoverned greed and selfishness, and Titanic violence, of which Teutonic Kultur is the climax and the crown. This is a feature present in other European races also. But as Mr. L. P. Jacks says in a recent article in the *Hibbert Journal*:—

"The Germans have worked out to its further consequences a philosophy of life dominant, though less tyrannous, in all the nations which have shared the intellectual development of the last three centuries. A principle which is elsewhere mixed and retarded by other tendencies, is their completely master." This philosophy of life makes them lose sight of those eternal principles of Dharma and Cosmic Law, which govern both physical and moral spheres and from the operation of which there is no escape. Harmony of soul can only be attained when man conforms to these laws. It is this Higher Law that the German political system has lost sight of: and, as a consequence, it has raised to the pedestal of Godhead, over-riding all ethical disciplines, the state as the only entity worthy of human obedience and service. That has been its greatest misfortune: the nationality idea, borrowed from the armoury of the makers of the French Revolution, was developed through the Bismarckian regulations of blood and iron to its final logical outcome as the non-moral, homogeneous Prussian State of to-day. Happily for England, her political development has been cast on different lines: she has all along recognised the sovereignty of law as supreme—all else, even the power of the State and the personality of the King being regarded ever since the Magna Charta, as flowing from it and subordinated to it. The great World-Conflict, then, in so far as it can be called an antagonism of ideals, is between the sovereignty of law and the freedom of Personality on the one hand, and on the other the mechanical principle of welding together various racial types and utilising the cumulative strength of individuals organised into an Association for conquest and dominion. The East has always, in its highest ideals, striven for the supremacy of Dharma and moral perfection of the soul. I venture to think, therefore, that it is no exaggeration to hold that the struggle that is being now waged in the blood-stained battlefields of the West is for the ultimate triumph of those

principles which the East holds dear.

There is an interesting parallel to the present situation in the story of the Ramayan. There Ravana had by his austerities and his devotion to Shiva, the personal God, secured his favour and was renowned for his material wealth and military power. Arts and Sciences were cultivated throughout his dominions to a perfection which was not attained anywhere else. But it was all intellectuality without moral worth. The lower self had not been mastered; and this would account for the abduction of Sita, who incarnated in her beautiful womanhood all the virtues of her sex, and for the disasters that followed when Ravana's bloated egotism was confronted by that embodiment of Dharma and incarnation of Aryan culture—the great Rama of the Epic. Thus was the Demon of a non-moral Universe, magnificently great and as tremendously organised, conquered by the powers of the True, the Good, and the Beautiful.

Modern European Philosophy has now come to the point of realising that the spirit is at the source of the working of the Universe: but it is at best a spirit working without a purpose. European thought has not put before itself a goal towards which the creative process might be set at motion. On the other hand, the Hindu system clearly defines the aims of existence. What are called Purusharthas are Dharma, Law, Righteousness, Artha or the acquisition of wealth, Kama or desire, the reproductive instinct and lastly, Moksha or liberation from the bondage of Cyclical life. The first of these governs the activity of the second and the third, and directs them towards the goal which is the last of these Ends of Existence. And over all these doctrines, as their governing principle, covering with the rest-giving wings as of a beneficent Angel, enveloping all the daily details of a Hindu's life, inspiring, strengthening, aiding, chastening all his manifold activity, remains the great doctrine of Karma. Many thinkers have misconstrued its leading tenets to mean fatalism. But no mistake can be more far-reaching or radical. One of the grandest tenets of Hinduism, it represents the call to Man to raise his lower self with the help of his Higher Self. That is the most sublime process of Self-Culture. Expand it from the individual to the aggregate, to the soul of a people; and you have what the West and in special England has discovered and so laboriously developed, namely, the fruitful idea of National Self-Government. One remembers in this connection the late Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's pregnant phrase: "Good Government is no substitute for Self-Government;" and it is in the expansion of this idea, that the glory of England and its Imperial System lies. One hopes that in the fulness of time England will, in this direction, prove to be the geatest benefactor that India has ever had. Thinkers in India were puzzled as to what this impact of the West on the East in India would lead to. There were vague misgivings as to its final good. But it was to the credit of the late Ranade that he gave form and direction to the nebulous ideas that were floating in the minds of his educated countrymen by familiarising them with the idea that the coming of the English with their traditions of freedom and self-rule was a providential arrangement, under which India would regain her lost nationhood. He inspired them with his instinct of healthy optimism and a strong-hearted belief in the ultimate triumph of the principles that England stood for. There was that other idea, which was due to Mr. Ranade or perhaps to his disciple, the late lamented Gokhale, that the nation needed opportunity for rising to the full height of its manhood and aspiration. Between these two conceptions, the nation's duty was clear. While, on the one hand, it was essential on the Indian's part to co-operate with his Rulers; on the other, it was equally necessary for the Rulers to recognise the profound unity that underlay the seeming diversities of Indian life and the legitimacy of the people's aspirations. This may be stated to be the political ideal of the better mind of India. The conduct of certain British rulers brought misgivings, however, to the minds of the people, and it was not till the signal act of Lords Morley and Minto in inaugurating the Reforms that are associated with their names, that confidence was restored. Above all, it was fortunate that Lord Hardinge had just before the outbreak of the World-Conflict taken so strong a stand on behalf of the Indians in South Africa. He may be said to have revealed the nation to itself by showing how much of solidarity there was in spite of communal barriers. He also revealed the true spirit of India towards England by sending the Indian soldiers to the front. And when war came with its tremendous issues of life and death, India doubted no longer and with one mind she moved to the side of England to help her in her hour of trial.

To conclude, it is one of the strange ironies of civilisation that only through blood and slaughter can we bring out the heroic qualities that are in us and rise to our fullest height of individual or

racial stature. War more than any other dramatic event in our life brings out that higher self, that magnificent spirit of other worldliness and sacrifice, something of which Kipling expresses in his "Absent-minded Beggar." It is true that Peace hath her victories. But there is nothing which enables us more dramatically to discover our soul than war. At the present moment, we are all doing that. It is one of the most hopeful features of this conflict that almost all the nations of the world are enabled to do so and are together in their suffering. All are engaged in learning their lesson at the same time, and it is but inevitable that behind this sickening welter of blood and hate, the cosmic forces are tending towards a profound re-adjustment of Ethical and National Standards.

"Whatever new wisdom," to quote again from the *Hibbert Journal* Article, "whatever vision of the weak spot in civilisation, is coming to ourselves as a result of the War, we may be very sure that the same wisdom, the same vision is coming to our enemies! Realising this, may we not believe that beneath the fierce and cruel oppositions of the hour a profounder principle of unity is at work?"

What Is War? Will It Ever Cease?

BY MR. DINSHAW EDULJI WACHA.

ALL over the world the question is put when this Armageddon on the continent of Europe will cease. It is a natural question. But how may it be answered? It can only be answered in one way, namely, by cogitating and ruminating on what war may be? Trace it then to its first cause. What is it? It is nothing but a struggle of human passions for mastery. But human passions are, as Carlyle says, so many "eternal verities." Humanity is born with them, and they can only be dispelled when humanity itself ceases to exist.

Just take a calm but comprehensive survey of what our finite understanding calls "Nature." Survey it in all aspects as it presents itself to the human mind. There are the heavens above and the subterranean regions below. There is the surface itself of the globe which we inhabit. How do we interpret the innumerable phenomena which this Nature presents itself to mankind with its limited knowledge? By that one key which the physicists have named Energy or Force. Energy pervades Nature. It is ever present in millions of shapes of which humanity knows next to nothing. Humanity is a babe picking up a few pebbles here and a few shells there while standing on the beach of the great ocean of Eternity, as that modest philosopher, Sir Isaac Newton observed in all the consciousness of humility. Energy is the driving force everywhere in the celestial and the terrestrial world, of which our common humanity has any knowledge. What may be the volcano but a mighty struggle of those mysterious forces within the bowels of the earth? Or what may be thunder and lightning in the skies or wind and rain, or light and darkness? Do not these inscrutable phenomena inform us how the mighty wheel of Energy is whirling itself round and round its own centre without pause or breath, educing in its course gigantic collisions, and creating active elements or laying to sleep others? There is no limit to the permutations and combinations of energy in the universe. Energy pervades everywhere. Energy struggles against energy, the ultimate resultant of which is either destruction or creation. As the great poet says: "to create is to destroy." Mountains disappear under the titanic stress and strain of Energy, giving place to oceans and lakes. Lakes and oceans disappear to make way for mountains. Land is uplifted or submerged. Rivers submerge into the ocean, stars collide and create new suns. These in their turn go into darkness and again out of that chaos comes light. What do they all signify? Nothing but the eternal struggle of one set of energy against another. The same struggle is seen on the surface of the globe in the mineral and vegetable kingdom as much as in the animal. There is the phenomenon of perpetual evolution, a mighty evolution indeed of which we with our finite knowledge can hardly grasp or elucidate the significance. Whence that evolution proceeds, whither it goes, are a mystery. Finite man cannot fathom its infinity. All that we are able to say is that energy pervades the universe and that it destroys and creates. What in the absence of ought else we call Time and Space are also forms of the same Energy. But Energy itself is a mystery of mysteries.

We know and are conscious of the fact that that energy pervades humanity. There are forces within the body physical the origin of which none can divine. The forces are both physical and moral. Moral forces are the result of mentality or mental energy? Each moment of our lives those forces struggle within us, one of which we call strife. It is eternal. And if that be the case, can we not, on the analogy of the innumerable phenomena of Nature, say that war is simply an outer expression of that eternal inward strife or struggle of energies in humanity? If so, is it not conceivable that do what finite humanity may with all its boasted civilisation of a few thousand years—a mere bagatelle in the æons of ages of which physicists speak—there is no way out of its environments to escape this great struggle? What are all the physical and celestial phenomena we attempt to interpret? Nothing but a perpetual war, an ever-continuing of forces which, as the poet says, "none can stay or stem." So it is with human struggles which in their outward aspect lead to war. Wars there have been from times unknown since humanity had its origin, and war there will be till that humanity is purged of it. But *when*? Presumably when the struggle between what is called energy, and energy ceases to exist. Meanwhile there will be cycles of war and cycles of no war so long as humanity is what it has been since the day of its birth. A radical change of environments must take place before any such millennium as we wish for is ever attained. After all it may be a pious wish on our part but that will in no way help to solve this problem. Century after century has rolled on, and century after century will follow. Just glance back at past history. What do you find? Century after century what is euphemiously called civilisation is said to have taken great strides towards ameliorating human conditions. But has it been the case that civilisation has eradicated from the human blood the microbe of war? Is it likely? From the days of the earliest wars in pre-historic times, which are wrapt in complete mystery, to those of the Egyptians, the Assyrians, the Persians, the Greeks and the Romans, to those of the medieval ages and thence to our days of Waterloo, Crimea, Solferino, Magenta, Gravelotte, Sedan, and Mukden there have been periods of tranquillity and periods of strife; but have we ever heard of a full century of peace in any part of the world? More. What about the amenities and humanities of belligerents, when after 5,000 years of civilisation we find the Germans practising at this very hour barbarities which would have staggered and astonished even the Huns and Vandals? And has not our boasted Science aided them in practising those barbarities and cruelties in a way which makes the blood of the peaceful world of civilisation creep? Are we not entitled to say, therefore, that the progress of civilisation is no guarantee whatever of the cessation of war, much less of the expulsion from the human blood of that spirit of primitive barbarism, which stands only next to that of the wild beasts of prey of the species of the lion and the tiger, the wolf and the panther? No. To wish for the banishment of war from human affairs is as much as to wish for the cessation of light from the Sun.

On the 4th of August, 1915, the following Resolution was solemnly acclaimed in every quarter of the British Empire:—

"On this Anniversary of the declaration of a righteous War, this Meeting records its inflexible determination in regard to the continuance to a victorious end of the struggle in the maintenance of those ideals of liberty and justice which are the common and sacred cause of the Allies."

INDIA'S SHARE IN THE STRUGGLE.

H. M. KING GEORGE.

I look to all my Indian soldiers to uphold the Izzat of the British Raj against an aggressive and relentless enemy. I know with what readiness my brave loyal Indian soldiers are prepared to fulfil this sacred trust shoulder to shoulder with their comrades from all parts of the Empire. Rest assured that you will always be in my thoughts and prayers. I bid you go forward and add fresh lustre to the glorious achievements and noble traditions of courage and chivalry of my Indian Army whose honour and fame is in your hands.—*His Majesty's greeting to the Indian Troops in France.*

RT. HON. MR. ASQUITH.

When we look at the actual achievements of the force so spontaneously dispatched, so liberally provided for, so magnificently equipped, the battlefields of France and Flanders bear an undying tribute to their bravery.—*Speech in the House of Commons.*

H. E. LORD HARDINGE.

There is, I believe, nothing like comradeship in arms before the enemy and joint participation in the dangers and hardships of war to level all distinctions, to inspire mutual respect and to foster friendships. This I regard as the bright side of the despatch of our troops to Europe and of the heavy material sacrifices that are being made by India for the sake of the Empire.

I cannot help feeling that as a consequence better relations will be promoted amongst the component parts of the British Empire, many misunderstandings will be removed and outstanding grievances will be settled in an amicable and generous manner. In this sense out of evil good may come to India, and this is the desire of all.—*Speech at the Meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council on September 8, 1914.*

SIR JOHN FRENCH.

One of the outstanding features of this, as of every action fought by the Indian Corps, is the stirring record of the comradeship in arms which exists between British and Indian soldiers . . . . The Indian troops have fought with utmost steadfastness and gallantry whenever they have been called upon . . . . At their own particular request, they have taken their turn in the trenches and performed most useful and valuable service.

THE MARQUIS OF CREWE.

I desire to express my conviction that the recognition by this meeting of the answer which India has given to Germany would thrill through the whole of the Empire. That answer has been given by the Indian Army, by the Princes of India, and by the whole people of India, who have lavished their labour, their gifts, and their prayers on behalf of the cause of which their beloved King Emperor is the centre and the symbol. Of the hopes of the future Mr. Bonar Law has spoken eloquently, and I would like also to think that the association of India and of the Colonies at such a gathering as this is a significant sign of the essential comprehension which, as the years roll on, would, as I firmly believe, sweep away all those obstacles of distance, of creed, or of race which seem to interfere with the complete union of the different members of the great Imperial Confederation—a union which would hinge upon the free activities of each, and which would be firmly based upon a common belief in the progress of the whole.—*Speech at the GuildHall, London.*

LORD HALDANE.

Indian soldiers are fighting for the liberties of humanity as much as we ourselves. India has freely given her lives and treasure in humanity's great cause; hence things cannot be left as they are. We have been thrown together in this mighty struggle and have been made to realise our oneness, so producing relations between India and England which did not exist before. Our victory would be a victory for the Empire as a whole and could not fail to raise it to a higher level.

LORD CURZON.

It would be an act of folly to refrain from using troops which were not inferior to but in some respects the most efficient of the whole Army. The martial spirit in India was traditional and famous, and why when we wanted every man we could get, should we refrain from employing them, because the sun happened to have looked upon them and made them dark? They would not fire on the Red Cross-badge; they would not murder innocent women and children; they would not bombard Christian cathedrals even if to them they were the fanes of an alien faith. The East was sending out a civilised soldier to save Europe from the modern Huns.—*Speech at Hull on September, 7.*

RT. HON. MR. BONAR LAW.

I do not think we fully realise here how much those men who have fought and died by the side of our own soldiers have helped us through these long months. It is my belief that as a nation we have more reason to be proud of the spontaneous enthusiasm on behalf of their Emperor and their Empire of the Indian Princes and Peoples than we had to be proud of the conquest of India.—*Speech at the Guild Hall, London.*

SIR FRANCIS YOUNGHUSBAND.

Just at the moment when our line, thin to breaking point, had to hold back the incessant and terrific onslaught of the Germans, this contingent of troops from India came upon the scene, and in their first serious action, on October 28, carried the village of Neuve Chapelle, since become so famous. Had we not been able to bring up these reinforcements from India, had our position there been so precarious that we could not afford to take them away and *a fortiori* had we been under necessity to send out more British troops to strengthen our position in India, then in all probability our troops in Flanders would not have been able to stay the German onrush, and our brave little army would have been swept off the Continent. That Indians were able to help the French, the Belgians, and ourselves in stopping a blow which the Germans had prepared for years is a thing of which they may be proud, and for which we should always be grateful to them . . .

As regards the future it could safely be predicted that new conditions would arise, the old demand of Indians for commissions in the army would be pressed; there would be demands for a more definite share in the Councils of the Empire, a larger part in the management of their own affairs, right to bear arms and to volunteer and a more equal social position.—*Speech at the Royal Colonial Institute.*

MR. WILLIAM ARCHER.

The very fact of her eager participation in this War of World Ideals shows that she is already well out of the slough of millennial stagnation. It now rests with us to help her forward, honestly, diligently, and with deliberate, intelligent purpose, on the path which shall lead her out of tutelage, and up to the eminent place to which her innate capacities entitle her in the economy of the Empire and of the world.—*In the Daily News and Leader.*

H. E. LORD PENTLAND.

We may all, I think, be proud that the troops of this country are fighting side by side with those of the rest of the empire in the cause of civilisation and honour, and I rejoice that they should have already given signal proofs of their valour and devotion before the eyes of Europe. I do not doubt that the spontaneous spirit of loyalty which at this critical time is found to pervade every country and every race composing the empire will serve to draw still closer the ties which bind us all together.—*Speech at Ellore on December 3rd*

H. E. LORD CARMICHAEL.

The loyalty of Bengal is undoubted. . . To me the fact seems undoubted—you know how far it is true you will in all wise ways prove it.—*Speech at the Bengal Legislative Council on 11th August 1914.*

H. E. LORD WILLINGDON.

. . . . . India will prove herself to be, both at home and abroad, a great bulwark of support in the defence of the Empire.—*Speech at the Bombay Legislative Council on December 8, 1914.*

HIS HONOR SIR M. O'DWYER.

These are the races which have carried the banners of the King-Emperor and spread the fame of the Punjabi soldier throughout the East from Pekin to Cairo and to Central Africa; they have now gone to win fresh laurels for themselves and their country fighting side by side with the manhood of the United Kingdom and of her Colonies and Dominions on the battlefields of Europe. The enthusiasm with which the troops called out responded to the call of duty is, I believe, only equalled by the disappointment of those who were left behind.—*Speech at the Legislative Council.*

SIR JOHN HEWETT.

Their employment in this supreme struggle side by side with the best troops that the world knows will do more to make our rule in India popular than any other step that the Government could take.—*In the Times.*

SIR WILLIAM MEYER.

The value of Indian contingents who have done so splendidly in this War, the values of the Indian supplies of munitions of War, and so on, will prove to have been of material assistance in determining the present campaigns.

QUEEN VICTORIA.

FOUR GENERATIONS OF ROYALTY.

KING EDWARD VII. AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA.

KING GEORGE V. AND QUEEN MARY.

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE WAR

BY

THE REV. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.

THE great European War which men have been so long dreading has come, and at the last has come suddenly. For twenty years the menace of it has hung over Europe like a dark thundercloud, but its outbreak has been so long delayed that some had begun to hope that it might be delayed indefinitely. This hope was not well-founded, for the constant growth of armaments laid an ever-increasing burden on the peoples of Europe the pressure of which was almost certain to lead to an explosion. Still, two months ago there seemed to be good reason for believing that the war would not break out at once. In the Balkan peninsula—the storm-centre of Europe—peace of a kind had been restored, and the efforts of Sir Edward Grey to avert a conflict between the Great Powers over the Balkan question appeared to have been successful.

The hopes of the peacemakers have been shattered and their labours in the cause of peace rendered useless by the dastardly outrage which two months ago sent a thrill of horror throughout the world. On the 28th June the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, was assassinated with his consort in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. The assassin was a young Bosnian, but it soon became clear that the plot which had led to the murder had its centre in Servia. The Austria-Hungarian government naturally felt that it had a grievance against Servia, and on the 23rd of July it sent to the Servian government an ultimatum embodying its demands. In view of all the circumstances no one could have blamed Austria for speaking firmly to Servia, but the ultimatum was of such a character that it was impossible that Servia would agree to what was asked. Further no time was allowed for consideration, for consultation, or for mediation. If the demands were not conceded at once war was to be the result. Servia did not accept the ultimatum unconditionally and Austria declared war on the 28th July.

It is almost impossible to resist the conclusion that Austria intended that the ultimatum should be rejected and that there should be war. Whether she expected that the war would spread, it is impossible at present to say. She knew that she had Germany's support and she may have thought that the nations forming the Triple Entente were not in a position to interfere with her. Britain seemed to be on the verge of civil war over the Irish question. The French government had just made a humiliating confession of military unpreparedness. In Russia a great strike was going on which might develop into a revolution. The time may have seemed propitious for settling the Balkans in accordance with

her wishes, especially when she could plead as the cause of the war the tragedy in which she had the sympathy of Europe. It was decided at any rate to take the risk and to make the Sarajevo outrage an excuse for the adoption of a policy of aggression which would restore to her the position she had lost by the Balkan war.

Events followed rapidly. Germany had stated that she would allow no one to interfere with Austria, but in spite of that on the 29th July Russia began to mobilise her army. On the 31st Germany sent an ultimatum to Russia and on the 1st August, declared war. An ultimatum was sent to France also on the 31st though mobilisation did not begin there till 1st August. Without waiting for a reply Germany on the 1st August violated the neutrality of Luxemburg and without the formality of declaring war invaded France. Britain meantime had been working strenuously in the interests of peace, but in vain, except that Italy proceeded to declare herself neutral. Britain was bound to France by ties of close friendship if not of alliance, and the threatening attitude of Germany and the German disregard of international obligations made her anxious with regard to the neutrality of Belgium. Britain accordingly asked France and Germany if they would respect the neutrality of Belgium. France replied at once that she would, but Germany returned an evasive reply, saying that to answer that question would be to reveal her plans. The meaning of that was only too clear. Britain to whom the Belgians had sent an appeal for help at once despatched an ultimatum to Germany, and on the 4th August declared war. On the same day German troops entered Belgium in spite of the protests of the Belgian Government.

The questions to which we naturally ask for answers are these—(1) What are the real causes why Austria has attacked Servia? (2) Why has Russia come to the help of Servia? (3) Why has Germany intervened to assist Austria? (4) Why has France joined Russia? (5) Why has Italy remained neutral? (6) Why has Great Britain shown herself the friend of France? (7) Why has Great Britain made the violation of the neutrality of Belgium a cause of war? To answer these questions fully would be to write a history of Europe. All that can be attempted in the course of a single article is to try to bring into prominence the chief features of the historical back-ground of the war so as to give at all events a partial answer to them.

To understand the present situation it is necessary first of all to glance at the history of somewhat ancient times. In the year 300 A.D. the boundaries of the Roman Empire in Europe were, roughly speaking, the Rhine and the Danube. To the east of the Rhine and the north of the Danube lived large numbers of German or Teutonic tribes, some of whom had even then come into conflict with the Empire. To the east of the Germans lived the races to which we nowadays apply the name Slav or Slavonic. The Germans, it will be noted, held a position midway between the Roman and Romano-Celtic peoples and the Slavs. During the fourth and fifth centuries the German tribes broke through the Roman boundaries in vast hordes. Throughout the western half of the Empire they overthrew the Roman government and destroyed the Roman civilization in most places to a great extent, in some, as in South Britain, completely. As the Germans moved westwards some of the Slavs occupied the regions in central Europe from which they had migrated. They also came down into the south-east of Europe and took possession of a large part of the Balkan peninsula. The history of Europe during the last twelve hundred years when looked at from the racial point of view consists in the pushing back of the Germans by the Latin races or the Romanised Celts, and the conquest of the Slavs by the Germans in central Europe. Looked at broadly the present war is a phase in this age

long conflict. In it the Latin and Slavonic people have united against the common foe, and, for special historical reasons which must be explained, Great Britain, a semi-Teutonic power, is found in a position of hostility to the German allies.

In the eighth century Charlemagne, the great king of the Franks, succeeded in uniting under his sway most of the lands in western Europe that had been included in the Roman Empire, and not unnaturally the title of Emperor was revived for him. But the Frankish Empire proved to be a sham, and in 843 A. D. it broke up into three parts. That part of it which was called France went to one of Charlemagne's grandsons, and the part east of the Rhine—which we may call Germany—to another. The middle section, a narrow strip extending from the North Sea to the Mediterranean and containing the two capitals, Aix-la-Chapelle or Aachen and Rome, went to the eldest grandson with the title of Emperor. Two of these kingdoms were fairly homogeneous, but the middle kingdom was very far from being so, and it in turn split into three—Italy, Burgundy and the northern section which from the name of its ruler, Lothar, was called Lotharingia. It included most of the middle and lower Rhine lands, and the name is still borne by Lorraine which, however, formed only a small part of the ancient Lotharingia. It is hardly too much to say that the conflicts between the two outer kingdoms, Germany and France, that have taken place during the past thousand years have been waged for the possession of parts of the middle kingdom, and more especially for the possession of Lotharingia.

During the middle ages, France gradually became more united and stronger while Germany for various reasons became disunited and therefore weaker. For a time the revived German Empire held all the middle kingdom but France gradually extended her boundaries and absorbed most of the French-speaking parts of the old middle kingdom while Germany lost her hold on Italy. Germany however, in the early middle ages gradually pushed eastwards and conquered and absorbed the Slavs, or as they called them, the Wends. Austria, Brandenburg (the modern Prussia) and the modern kingdom of Saxony all occupy territory that was conquered from the Slavs, and German civilization spread all along the coasts of the Baltic as far as Finland. The rise of the Slavonic states of Poland and Bohemia at last checked the progress of the Germans eastward. It fared ill with the Slavs elsewhere also, for many of them fell under the power of the Magyars or Hungarians, a race from Central Asia who had established themselves in the plains of central Europe about the year 1000 A.D.

In the Balkan peninsula two Slav states had emerged in the course of time—Servia and Bulgaria. Both of these states and Russia had been christianised from Constantinople and belonged therefore to the Greek and not to the Roman church. At times first one and then the other had threatened the existence of the Eastern Roman Empire, but then as now they were on bad terms with one another. Their hostility made them fall a prey to the invading Turks who conquered them in the fourteenth century. After the fall of Constantinople the Turks pressed northwards, and by their conquest of most of Hungary in the beginning of the sixteenth century added many Slavs to the number of their subjects.

Coming to the modern period of European history we find the old rivalry between France and Germany taking a slightly different form. That period is often regarded as beginning with the invasion of Italy in 1494 by Charles VIII of France, an adventure which brought him into collision with Spain which at that time held Sicily. That invasion was the opening of the great duel between the French monarchy and the House of Hapsburg which lasted for two centuries and a half. The Archdukes of Austria had succeeded for sometime in securing their election as Emperors of Germany, or to speak more accurately of the

Holy Roman Empire, and now by a series of well-arranged marriages they added to their dominions the Netherlands, Spain, Naples, Bohemia and the part of Hungary which was not held by the Turks. France failed to establish herself in Italy and Lombardy passed into the possession of the House of Hapsburg for three hundred and fifty years. Charles V, the greatest of the Hapsburgs was the great-grandson of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, and he inherited along with the Netherlands the longstanding feud between the Dukes of Burgundy and the Kings of France. On his abdication in 1556 the German possessions of the House passed with the title of Emperor to his brother Ferdinand, while his son, Philip III of Spain, received the other dominions; but the two branches of the Hapsburgs usually worked together, and the duel between France and Spain in the 16th and 17th centuries is really only another phase of the old rivalry between France and Germany.

We may note here that the possession of the Netherlands, the modern Holland and Belgium, by Spain was one of the causes of the great life and death struggle in which England found herself engaged in the time of Elizabeth. England had for long been interested in the Netherlands and espec ly in Flanders which contains the great port Antwerp. For commercial reasons England and the great cities of Flanders were always anxious to be on good terms. In the 14th century Edward III allied himself with the Flemish towns against France, and in the end of the 15th century Edward IV supported Charles the Bold, who then held Flanders, against Louis XI. "Antwerp in the possession of a great naval power," said Napoleon, "is like a loaded pistal at the head of England." It was not unnatural therefore that when friction arose between England and Spain, England should view with favour the revolt of the Netherlands, and should assist th Dutch in securing their liberty. This action of the English was one of the causes of the sailing of the Invincible Armada. Philip had hoped that his forces in the southern Netherlands, which had been reconquered, would help in that great expedition, but the Dutch saw to it that the Duke of Parma should not come from Antwerp. As the power of Spain declined, English policy naturally altered. France now became the dangerous power, and the great wars which Britain fought at the end of the 17th and 18th centuries were waged largely to prevent the Netherlands from falling under the sway of France.

In the 16th and 17th centuries France, though a Catholic power, intervened in the religious wars of Germany on the Protestant side and succeeded in acquiring some more of the middle Kingdom. Some of the territories acquired were French-speaking; others, notably Alsace, were purely German. Louis XIV in the latter half of the 17th century appears to have deliberately set before himself the object of making the boundaries of ancient Gaul those of modern France, and in all probability he would have succeeded and would have made the Rhine the boundary of France but for William of Orange and the opposition of Great Britain. He failed in his supreme effort, and the war of the Spanish Succession transferred to Austria from Spain, which was now ruled by a Bourbon king, his grandson, the Spanish Netherlands and the Spanish possessions in Italy. From that date the power of Austria was supreme in Italy, and Belgium, now the Austrian Netherlands ceased for a time to be a menace to Britain.

During the 17th and 18th centuries Austria succeeded in driving the Turks out of Hungary and in forcing them back across the Danube. Her new conquests made her more of a Slav power than before, and the partition of Poland in the end of the 18th century added still further to the number of her subjects of Slavonic race. At the same time her predominance in Germany began to be threatened by the rise of Prussia which

under Frederick the Great deprived her of the important German province of Silesia.

In the wars which followed the French Revolution, France for a time succeeded in realising the dream of Louis XIV, for Belgium, Holland and the left bank of the Rhine were conquered. It was the threatened annexation of Belgium and the attack on Holland that brought Great Britain into the war. But for the overweening self-confidence of Napoleon, France might have retained the left bank of the Rhine, even after the great defeat at Leipzic in 1813, and have enjoyed the possession of her so-called 'natural boundaries'—the Alps, the Pyrenees and the Rhine.

After the fall of Napoleon the Congress of Vienna rearranged the map of Europe. We need here notice only four of its arrangements. Prussia received large German territories including the Rhine Provinces. Belgium was given up by Austria and was united with Holland in the Kingdom of the Netherlands as a bulwark against France. Austria received Lombardy, Venetia, Istria and Dalmatia, and thus became less of a German and more of an Italian and Slavonic power than before. Germany was made a loose confederation of 38 states. All unwittingly Napoleon had conferred a great benefit on Germany. Under his auspices in 1803 more than 250 small German states had been swept away. The lesser princes had been 'mediatised'; the Free Cities had with four exceptions been incorporated in the great states; and the ecclesiastical states had been secularised and had been absorbed by their neighbours. There was no proposal made at Vienna to undo this part of Napoleon's work, and this consolidation in no small measure prepared the way for a United Germany.

The arrangement about the Netherlands did not work well, and in 1830 the Belgians revolted. The Great Powers intervened and agreed to recognise the independence of Belgium. The liberal party in Belgium would have liked Belgium to be re-united to France, but that would have led to a European war. Ultimately it was settled that Belgium should be a monarchy and that its neutrality and independence should be guaranteed by the five Great Powers one of whom was Prussia, and this decision was enforced on Holland by a French army and a British fleet. Until now the guaranteed neutrality of Belgium has never been violated. When the Franco-German War of 1870 broke out, both sides assured Great Britain that the neutrality of Belgium would be respected and the promise was kept. It has long been feared, however, that another war would be too severe a strain for Germany's good faith, and the event has justified the fear.

The middle of the 19th century was marked by the growing rivalry of Austria and Prussia. In 1859 Austria received a humiliating blow. Italy had proved restive under the Austrian domination and the kingdom of Sardinia had put itself at the head of the national movement. Count Cavour, the great Italian statesman, and Victor Emmanuel the King of Sardinia, succeeded in securing the support of Napoleon III, the Emperor of the French, who for reasons of his own wished to humiliate Austria, and in 1859 the Austrians were defeated and had to cede Lombardy. This was the signal for the fall of the princes throughout the peninsula who depended on Austrian support and the kingdom of United Italy came into existence. As compensation France received another piece of the middle kingdom—the provinces of Savoy and Nice.

Just at this time there came into prominence in Prussia as Minister-President one of the most remarkable men of the nineteenth century—Otto von Bismarck, the creator of the German Empire. Bismarck was at the time a strong conservative, the determined foe of liberal ideas and constitutional government. The two ideas that possessed him were the upholding of the power of the

monarchy, and the aggrandisement of Prussia—Germany to him was nothing, Prussia everything. He was a man of unbounded courage and iron will, and his diplomacy was as astute as it was unscrupulous. He saw that there was not room in Germany for both Austria and Prussia and he was resolved that Austria must go. To crush Austria an army was required and to obtain the army that he needed the Prussian Parliament had to be defied. In spite of all opposition he went steadily on his way, and succeeded. The burning question in Germany at the time was the relation of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein to Denmark, territories which Bismarck coveted for Prussia. By adroit measures he succeeded in persuading Austria to join Prussia in an attack on Denmark, Not only Holstein which was German but also Schleswig which was largely Danish were torn from Denmark. By more astute diplomacy Bismarck succeeded in bringing about a quarrel with Austria over the division of the spoil. The Prussian army was now ready. It was armed with a breech-loading rifle and was commanded by the great General von Moltke. Most of the other German states joined Austria, but Prussia was too strong for them and in 1866 in a short campaign of seven weeks Austria was brought to her knees. Austria was treated with leniency. She was compelled to surrender Venetia to Italy the ally of Prussia and was turned out of Germany, but no German territory was taken from her. Prussia annexed Schleswig, Holstein, the kingdom of Hanover, Hesse Cassel, Hesse Nassau, and the Free City of Frankfort, thus consolidating her territory in Northern Germany. Next year, 1867, the North German Confederation was formed of which the King of Prussia was President, and treaties of alliance were made with the South German states, excluding Austria. Henceforward Austria must find her interests in Eastern Europe.

It was now the turn of France. Of all the dupes on whom Bismarck imposed, none was more completely deceived by him than Louis Napoleon, the Emperor of the French. Napoleon had somehow an extraordinary reputation for ability, though it is difficult now to see why he ever obtained it. Bismarck saw that it was important to gain him over to the side of Prussia, and by personal interviews he succeeded in doing so. Napoleon thought that the growth of the power of Prussia would be a counterpoise to that of Austria, and Bismarck held out hopes, or even made promises to him, of compensation in the shape of new territories for France. His neutrality was thus secured and he doubtless hoped that when Austria and Prussia were exhausted by a long war he would intervene as 'the honest broker' and obtain as his reward part of the left bank of the Rhine. Unfortunately for his plans the Austro-Prussian War came to a speedy end. He failed even then to put forward his demands before peace was concluded, and when at last he asked Prussia for compensation his requests were treated with scorn. First he asked for part of the left bank of the Rhine; then, when that was refused, for Belgium; and finally for permission to purchase Luxemburg. Some at least of these acquisitions had been suggested by Bismarck himself, but now they were all refused. Napoleon had foolishly, unlike Bismarck, put his proposals in writing. Bismarck communicated Napoleon's plans to the South German states and thus secured their alliance, and when the Franco-German war broke out he published Napoleon's proposal about Belgium and thus alienated British sympathy from him.

The Franco-German War of 1870-71 was the natural outcome of the Austrian war of 1866. France became alarmed at the growing strength of Prussia, and though Napoleon himself does not seem to have wished for war there was among his friends a strong party which thought that a successful war would establish his dynasty more firmly. Bismarck also wished for war in order

to consolidate the new Confederation and to bring in the South German states. Napoleon began to arrange alliances with Austria and Italy which had as their object an attack on Prussia. But Bismarck as usual was too clever for Napoleon, and when the Confederation army was ready, he struck. With his usual astuteness however he succeeded in making France appear to be the aggressor. He started an intrigue for placing a Hohenzollern on the Throne of Spain, knowing that this proposal would infuriate the French people. His intrigue nearly brought Prussia a diplomatic reverse, for, the candidature was withdrawn, but the French played into Bismarck's hands, by demanding that King William of Prussia should give a guarantee that it would not be renewed. Even then there need not have been war, but Bismarck who had become quite down-hearted at the thought of peace, suddenly perceived a way of making war certain. He altered the account of the interview of the French Ambassador with King William at Ems so as to give the impression that they had insulted one another, and the immediate effect of the publication of this lying account was that both Germans and Frenchmen clamoured for war. Later in life, after Bismarck had quarrelled with the present Kaiser and retired into private life, he used to boast that but for him there would have been no war with France. One does not envy him the responsibility. War broke out. The South German states, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden joined the North German Confederation and the French were completely defeated.

During the war the French Empire fell and the new German Empire was called into existence with the King of Prussia as German Emperor. France was compelled to pay a huge indemnity of £ 200,000,000 and to cede Alsace and part of Lorraine to Germany. The people of Alsace were of German race, but both provinces were entirely French in sympathy and have remained so after forty-three years' separation from France in spite of, perhaps partly because of, Prussian methods of government. No doubt these provinces were seized chiefly for military reasons but their annexation has been largely responsible for the continued bitter hostility between France and Germany, and for the huge armaments of the latter half of the nineteenth century. France recovered more rapidly than Germany had expected and in 1875 Germany began to threaten her. It is doubtful whether Bismarck intended really to wage a war of prevention. If he had thought it necessary no scruples would have deterred him. At any rate the situation was serious enough to cause both Queen Victoria and the Czar to intervene. It is not surprising therefore that France in her weakness began to look about for an ally and was overjoyed when in 1891 she found that Russia seemed willing to form an alliance with her against Germany.

We must now turn to the South-East of Europe where 'the Eastern Question' had been reopened by an insurrection against Turkey in Herzegovina. This revolt led first to war between Servia and Turkey and at last to the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78. Turkey was defeated and concluded the treaty of San Stefano with Russia. Great Britain, however, intervened and compelled Russia to submit that treaty to a conference of the Powers which was held at Berlin under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, in the summer of 1878. By that treaty Roumania, Servia and Montenegro were made independent states, and the autonomous principality of Bulgaria was created. Austria, as a reward for her neutrality, was allowed to occupy and administer Bosnia and Herzegovina, and to occupy the Sanjak of Novibazar, a strip of old Servia lying between Servia and Montenegro. It required an army of 200,000 men to enable Austria to take over her new acquisitions, the people of which are mostly Servian by race.

After the Congress of Berlin the relations of Austria and Russia became rather strained. The key-note of Bismarck's foreign policy had been hitherto friendship with Austria and Russia. He had now to choose between them and so in 1879 an alliance was made with Austria promising to assist Austria if she were attacked by Russia. In 1882 Italy joined the two central European Powers and the Triple Alliance was formed. It seemed strange that Italy should thus join her old enemy Austria, but at the time she was irritated with and suspicious of her old ally France, because of the French occupation of Tunis. There were, however, elements of weakness in the alliance for many Italians look longingly on the Italian-speaking territories still in the possession of Austria—*Italia Irredenta* as they call it—and the aims and ambitions of Austria and Italy in the Adriatic coasts of the Balkan peninsula are necessarily conflicting. It is not surprising that Italy at the present juncture has considered that Austria's attack on Servia is an act of aggression, and has decided that without loss of honour she may remain neutral. If justification were needed she may plead the example of Germany. To prevent the Czar for looking for assistance from France if Russia were attacked by Austria Bismarck, in spite of the existence of the Triple Alliance, about the year 1887 entered into a secret agreement with Russia by which Germany agreed to protect her against an attack from Austria.

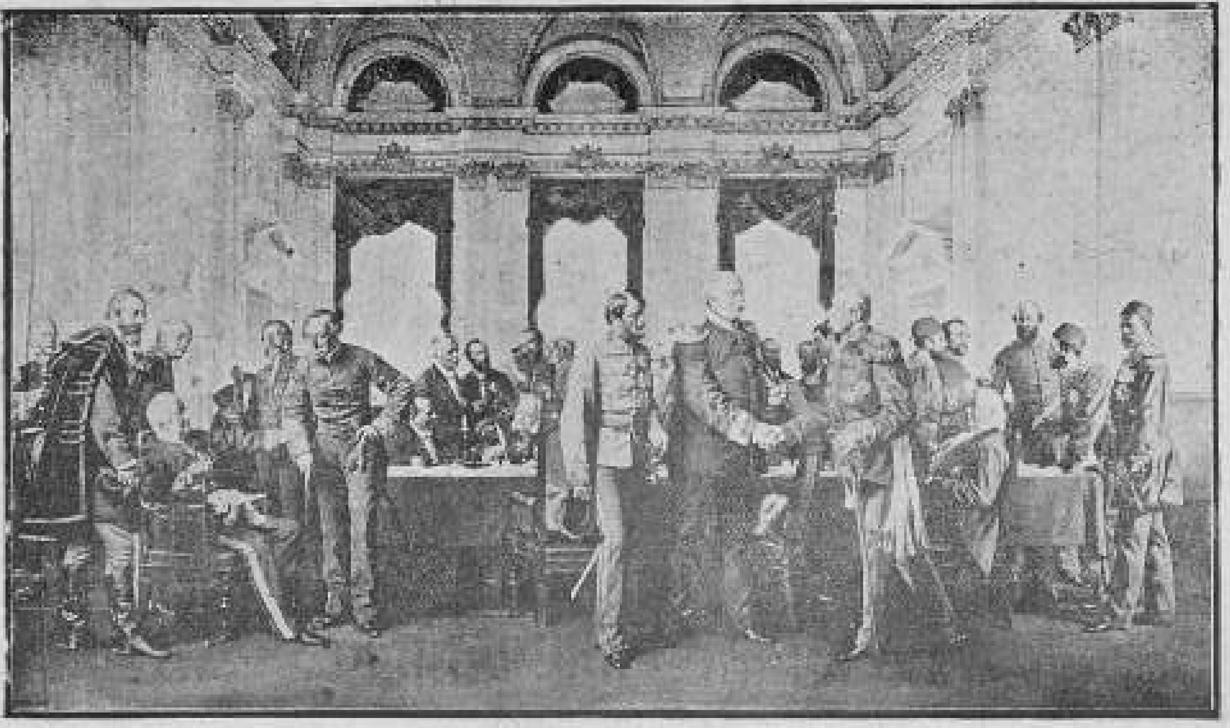
In 1888 the Emperor William came to the throne of Germany. Though he was a pupil and admirer of Bismarck it soon became evident that two men each so self-willed could not work together. In 1890 the great Chancellor fell. He was compelled to resign, and retired into private life where he indulged in the most bitter criticism of the government in which he no longer had a share. The new Emperor had his own views on foreign affairs and the secret agreement with Russia was not renewed. Russia and France at once began to draw together and in opposition to the Triple Alliance the Dual Alliance was formed in 1895. How necessary the alliance was for France was clearly shown by the bullying tone which Germany at once adopted towards her when Russia was weakened by the Japanese war. It is because of the existence of these alliances that Germany has in the present crisis come to the assistance of Austria while France has armed to support Russia.

The arrangements made at Berlin in 1878 lasted more or less completely for thirty years. The revolution in Turkey in 1908, however, led to some unexpected results. Austria and Bulgaria evidently feared that if Turkey became a reformed state the Turks might be anxious to regain their power over their outlying provinces. At once therefore Austria announced the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Bulgaria proclaimed herself to be an independent kingdom. Austria's action caused fury in Servia for the Bosnians are of the Serb race, and the "Great Servian Idea" seemed thus to be destroyed. Russia interposed in favour of Servia but Germany "in shining armour," as the Emperor William put it, at once stood by her ally. Russia had not yet recovered from the effects of the Japanese war and had humbly to retire at Germany's bidding. Possibly in 1914 Germany thought the same thing would happen. Servia pleaded for an extension of her own territory, and was anxious to obtain the Sanjak of Novibazar which would have connected her territory with that of Montenegro. That however, was the very last thing that Austria wished to see, and so the Sanjak was handed back to Turkey. By the Balkan wars of 1912-13 Servia succeeded in acquiring that part of old Servia and much besides, and it is her success in so doing that has largely led to the present war.

And now the question may be answered. Why did Austria go to war with Servia? Austria-

THE GAME OF KINGS.
From the *Journal* (New Jersey.)

THE RESERVIST.
From the *Journal* (New Jersey.)



THE TREATY OF BERLIN, JULY 13, 1878.

The Congress of Berlin (following the Russo-Turkish War) under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, compelled the Russians to content themselves with a moderate acquisition of territory in Asia, with the extension of their frontiers to the mouth of the Danube, and with the foundation of two Bulgaria vassal states. Disraeli was England's chief representative at the Congress.

From the Historians' History of the World.

Hungary is determined to crush Servia and that for two reasons. First, in the Dual Monarchy there are no fewer than 25,000,000 Slavs—more than half of the total population. Of these more than 5,000,000 are Serbs most of whom would like to be united to Servia. Servia, there can be no doubt, has been encouraging a pro-Servian propaganda amongst Austrian subjects, and Austria is determined that this shall end. But there is another reason for Austria's action. Of late years it has become increasingly clear that Germany's attitude towards the Eastern Question has completely changed from what it was when Bismarck contemptuously remarked that Germany's interest in it was not worth the life of a single Pomeranian grenadier. In her quest for a suitable "place in the sun" Germany has cast her eyes upon the Asiatic dominions of Turkey. Sedulous attempts have been made to cultivate the friendship of the Sultan and concessions for the employment of German capital in Asia Minor and the Euphrates valley have been the result. The ultimate aim it is needless to indicate. But the road to these territories lies through the Balkan peninsula, and if Servia becomes too strong the way for the two German powers to the Ægean will be blocked. Germany and Austria-Hungary have evidently decided that the time has come to attempt to ensure that it shall remain open by reducing Servia to the position of a vassal State.

It was impossible that Russia could look on with indifference while Servia was being crushed. True, Russia is the last country in the world to wish to encourage conspiracies for the murder of those in high places. But when it became evident that the murder of the Archduke was being made the excuse for an attack on Servian independence Russia could not but take action. Russia no doubt has her own interests in the Balkan peninsula, for which she is working, but apart from self-interest the fact that the Russian and Servian peoples are closely bound together by the ties of common race and common religion has once again brought the Russians to the assistance of their weaker brethren. It was Russia that won for Servia first autonomy and then independence, and Russia but for her own weakness would have supported Servia effectively in 1908. It is doubtful whether even if the Russian Government had wished to remain neutral at this juncture it could have done so, in face of the powerful wave of Slavonic race feeling that seems to have swept over the country. Austria and Germany must have known what would be the result of their action. If not, if they were merely "bluffing," and fancied that Russia would again give way before their threats, they have made a deadly mistake.

It is necessary now in conclusion to review briefly the relations of Great Britain with France and Germany during the past thirty years. During the first half of that period Britain and France were not on very friendly terms. France was irritated by the British occupation of Egypt, and various colonial questions were constantly giving rise to friction. The situation became most dangerous in 1898 when Major Marchand occupied Fashoda on the upper Nile which the French had been distinctly told was regarded by the British as within their sphere of influence. War fortunately was averted, but the feeling of the two countries towards one another became still more unfriendly. After the accession of Edward VII, however, a determined effort was made to come to a friendly understanding with France, and in 1904 an agreement was made by which all outstanding causes of quarrel were removed. This was the beginning of the *Entente Cordiale*. Its influence was seen next year. France had agreed to recognise Britain's position in Egypt, and Britain in return had promised to leave France a free hand in Morocco. Germany, however, suddenly discovered that she had interests in Morocco, and it became necessary to hold an international

conference. It was held at Algeciras in 1905, and at it Great Britain stood by France while Austria supported Germany. Since then the friendship has grown closer, and friendship with France has led to greater friendliness between Britain and Russia the ally of France. Three years ago when Germany again intervened in connexion with Morocco and tried to browbeat France, Britain again stood by her friend in the diplomatic "conversations" which took place, and made ready her fleet.

Britain's friendship with France has been partly the cause and partly the effect of a change in her relations with Germany. At the time of the Franco-German War most people in Great Britain were on the side of Germany, though even then there were some who looked with dislike, if not fear, on Bismarck's policy of "blood and iron." The formation of the German Empire was regarded sympathetically, and for years the feeling towards Germany throughout Great Britain was one of complete friendliness. When in 1884 Germany embarked upon her colonial policy a certain amount of friction was caused by the British dislike of Bismarckian diplomatic methods, but it was felt generally that it was not unnatural that Germany should wish to have colonies, and the points in dispute were amicably settled. Britain made no attempt to use her overwhelmingly greater naval strength to prevent the acquisition by Germany of colonies in Africa and in the South Seas. Those who knew Germany however were aware of the deep-seated envy with which Germany regarded the British colonial empire, and how in particular she hoped that the enmity between Boer and Briton in South Africa might lead to the establishment of her own power there. To them the famous telegram which the Emperor William sent to President Kruger in January 1896 on the failure of the foolish Jamieson Raid did not cause the astonishment which was felt by most persons in Britain. From that date the general feeling in Great Britain changed. It was felt that Germany had deeper designs than had yet been recognised, and that Germany was in no sense our friend. The Boer War might perhaps not have taken place had Kruger not fancied that he would receive assistance from a foreign power. If Germany wished at that time to take hostile action the weakness of her navy prevented her, and it is significant that it was at that date that she began the construction of a navy which, had Great Britain remained inactive, would soon have been the strongest navy in the world. When the British realised what was being done in Germany they naturally began to ask why Germany wished such a huge navy. Britain, because of her insular position, her peculiar economic conditions, and her empire, requires a large navy as a means of self-preservation. Germany having created a large mercantile marine and having acquired some colonies might be expected to wish to be strong on the sea also. But the magnitude of the scheme she was undertaking showed that she could have but one object in view. She was determined to dispute the position of Britain as mistress of the seas, in the hope that she might make herself as supreme on the ocean as she was on land, in short that she might make herself dictator of the whole world. The evident hostility of Germany thus made Britain draw closer to France, while at the same time she strengthened her navy. The increasing burden that this has entailed led recently to an agreement with France, that if France kept her ships in the Mediterranean, Britain would keep her fleet mainly in the North Sea. It was this agreement that made Britain, when Germany threatened France, explain to Germany that she must protect the coasts of France and the French colonies against the German fleet.

Two causes then have led to the declaration of war against Germany. First, our agreement with France—an agreement into which we have been led by the manifest hostility of Germany. Honour

and self-interest alike demand that we should not stand aside and see France crippled. Secondly, even if we were under no obligation to France we are bound by the guarantee that we have given for the neutrality and integrity of Belgium. Here again honour and self-interest alike forbid a selfish neutrality. We could not without dishonour have turned a deaf ear to the Belgians when they appealed to us for assistance against the unprovoked breach of her neutrality by Germany. It is true that Germany in the act of breaking her plighted word has offered to promise that she will keep half of it, and will respect the integrity of Belgium. But the Pan-Germans have spoken in no uncertain language of their aims, and the Bismarckian diplomacy has made the much-sung "Deutsche Treue" (German faithfulness) a subject for laughter. Much as we deplore war, and great as will be the suffering it must entail, there are times when war is better than a dishonourable peace, and such a time has come in the history of the British Empire. Great Britain has entered upon war conscious of the righteousness of her cause, and has drawn the sword in the interest of justice and liberty.

The Underlying Causes of the European War

BY

N. M. MUZUMDAR, B.A., B. SC., (ECON). (LONDON). F.R.E.S., BAR-AT-LAW.

THE European situation precipitated by the Austro Servian war has developed into a general European War. All the great Powers of Europe with the single exception of Italy (at the moment of writing) have drawn the sword, and Japan too has joined in the fight. All Europe has become one great battlefield. And the war zone would appear to have spread all over the European, and here and there even on the African and Asiatic, world. The *immediate* causes of the war are plain. There was the Austro-Servian tension. And the act of an insane assassin precipitated the conflict between Austria and Servia. But there lay yet deeper causes than that, causes that had accumulated. For Austria it was Servian ambition backed up by Russia; and for Servia it was Austrian aggression backed up by Germany. This is how the respective Governments alloted the burden of the inner causes of the struggle, each throwing the blame on the other.

It would be worth while to examine at first the immediate causes of the European conflict from both points of view. The Austrian point of view is that her war with Servia is essentially a war in self-defence. In an Empire containing a most heterogeneous population, she feels herself in danger of a disintegrating wedge. It has among its population Germans, Bohemians, Hungarians, Magayrs, Czecks, Poles, Ruthanians, Croatians and Slavs, material very hard indeed to weld into a cohesive Empire. Hardest of all to assimilate has been the Slavonic population, and joined to them the Croatians, a more or less similar people, (similarly groaning under the weight of Magayr domination). According to Austria, Servia, the leading Slav country in the Balkans, flushed with success in the Balkan war, after

breaking Bulgaria, aims at growing into a "greater Servia," the "Champion" of the Slavs, gaining its "natural" boundaries that would include all surrounding Slavs; and at becoming, if not itself a great Slav nation, the leader in a great Slavonic Federation, and ultimately at the back of Austria a great Balkan power. Austria sees danger in this pan-Slavonic movement which would affect the large number of Slavs within her borders. Bosnia and Herzegovina would also fall within the "natural" boundaries of a "greater" Servia, and with them a good part of the Adriatic coast. In such schemes Austria believes that Servia has the acquiescence, if not the direct encouragement, of its mighty Slav neighbour, Russia. Russia, it holds, is actuated by its policy of creating and maintaining a dominating influence in the Balkans to find, if possible, a way out to her eternal quest, an ice-free sea. If Servia reached the sea there was the danger of a "Russian" port in the Adriatic. A Slavonic federation would be also a dangerous wedge in the artificial conditions of the Austro-Hungarian Empire; and such a wedge Austria holds it must resist at all costs. The Servian and Russian point of view is that the real causes of the trouble lie in Austrian and German aggression in the Balkans. It is they who are trying to dominate the Balkans. The real aim of Austria backed up by Germany is to prevent the natural growth of Servia, and prevent her from having an outlet on the Adriatic which her economic conditions most require.

The solidarity of Austria means a good deal for Germany. And any weakening of the Austro-Hungarian Empire would be guarded against and resisted by its friend, neighbour and ally. The interests of Germany, Austria, Russia and the Mediterranean States involve the interests of all Europe. And when such wide interests are involved England is not only unable to stand aloof, but in her own interests do all it can to preserve and ensure if not the peace of Europe, at any rate the balance of power in Europe.

The present position and relations of the Powers in Europe cannot be understood without a glance at recent history. The one great outstanding feature of the last fifty years is the unification of Germany and its rapid rise to a world power. And the present grouping of the great powers is mainly the result of the Franco-Prussian war which made modern Germany. Only four years before Prussia had driven out Austria, its rival, by force from the Germanic Federation, had ended the Holy Roman Empire, and assumed the leadership of the North German States. Austria defeated and checked in the North began thenceforth to look southward. Prussia on its part consolidated the North German States and brought on the Franco-Prussian conflict which rallied the German States round herself. It required all the diplomacy of Bismarck to keep Austria and Russia out of the conflict. The fall of France meant the unification of Germany, and for 20 years the task of Bismarck's life was to keep France in isolation. In the meantime in 1877 Russia, tired of European inaction in the Turkish question, declared war on Turkey. It marched to Constantinople and dictated the San Stefano treaty. The powers hurried and met at Berlin charged with the revision of the San Stefano treaty. At the Berlin Congress, Bismarck presided and played the "honest broker." The Congress refused to allow Russia's scheme of a "big" Bulgaria in which Russian influence would be supreme, and at the same time practically handed over Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria which had not struck one blow for them. Russia seethed with indignation at Germany's ingratitude particularly for her neutrality during the Franco-Prussian war. The *Dreikaiserbund* (the Union of the three Kaisers) broke up, and the gradual formation of the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy followed. The Dual Alliance

was at first concluded between Germany and Austria in 1879, though it was not published till 1888. According to it, if either of the agreeing powers was attacked by any other power the other was to remain neutral. But if the enemy was supported by Russia the other was bound to assist. This secured Germany from the fear of a Franco-Russian onslaught. It also brought men of German blood together and healed the wound of Sadowa. Austria on its part was secured against Russia and felt strong to pursue its policy southwards. Three years later Italy joined the Dual Alliance when France established a protectorate over Tunis very much to her indignation. An Alliance with her old enemy the Austrian and Germany appeared to her at that time essential for her own national security.

The effect of the publication in 1888 of the Austro-German treaty, and the union of Italy with the Dual Alliance, was to bring France and Russia together. With the fall of Bismarck who had stood between France and Russia this union was brought about. And in 1891 these two powers signed a treaty. The terms of the treaty have never been published. But there is little doubt that Russia is pledged to support her ally in case of attack by Germany. Russia on its own part required an assured position in Europe to carry out her Asiatic ambitions and also wanted capital which she could only get from thrifty France.

Still England was no particular friend of France or Russia. It had opposed Russia in the Crimea, in China and Afghanistan, and the Penjdeh incident was still fresh. Opposition to France had been involved in the occupation of Egypt, and France had not forgotten Fashoda. On the other hand, England's friendship with Germany, Austria and Italy had remained. There was no clash of interests with Austria. And as for Germany in Egypt Bismarck had said he was English. (He *could* not be French).

But the position changed with the opening years of the new century. For the last 14 years there has been an inevitable tendency for England to draw nearer to France and Russia. It has had to leave its old policy of isolation in continental affairs. In the Mediterranean, the road to the East, she had always asserted herself. But now she could not afford to remain aloof in continental affairs. The Triple Alliance was distinctly aimed at France and Russia. And to preserve the balance of power she could not but throw herself on their side. Germany's Asiatic ambitions were revealed in the Bagdad Railway. And her naval programme showed her desire to become a rival naval power. "Our future lies on the water," declared the German Emperor. And he had further declared that the aim of Germany was to find "a place under the sun." German disapproval of the Boer War had not remained hidden, and was openly evinced in the Kruger telegram. And the *Daily Telegraph* interview clearly expressed the Emperor's mind on the subject of Anglo-German relations.

In May 1903 King Edward paid his first official visit to France. And in 1904 France and England signed a treaty by which France surrendered all claims to Egypt and undertook not to press for the termination of the occupation, England on the other hand giving France a free hand in Morrocco. And though it has been officially denied, it has been largely believed that England also agreed to help France if attacked. But the Morroccan question was not to be thus finally settled. In 1905 the Kaiser landed from his yacht at Tangier, and declared the Sultan free and independent, and forced the submission of the whole question to a European Conference. The Algecirus Conference followed. England and Russia stood by France. Germany was disappointed. And the effect of Algecirus was to bring England and Russia also nearer than they were. In 1910 again when the Morroccan question once

more came up, the German battleship *Panther* suddenly appeared on the Morroccan coast. It almost looked as if France and Germany were on the verge of war. England's reply to this was in Mr. Lloyd George's Mansion House speech. "Hands off" he declared to Germany. And the effect was to bring France and England nearer than they were.

In 1905 when Lord Hardinge (then Sir Charles Hardinge) was Ambassador at St. Petersburg negotiations began between England and Russia, and in 1907 the Anglo-Russian Convention was signed. This, Germany understood as a design for her isolation. Events in the Balkans only intensified the situation. In 1908 Austria obtained permission to survey for a railway to the Sanjak of Novi Bazaar. Servia immediately pressed for a railway to the Adriatic. The revolution in Turkey, however, altered things. Bulgaria threw off Turkish suzerainty, and Austria definitely annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Servia at once demanded compensation for the destruction of her hopes of getting these two provinces, and in such a demand relied mainly on the support of Slav Russia. But this demand was ended by the Kaiser peremptorily informing the Czar that if his support of Servian claims would lead to war with Austria, Germany would support her ally by all the means at her disposal. And a little later when he was in Vienna he spoke about his having stood by the Austrians "in shining armour."

All this explains the international situation preceding the war. The main factors were the antagonism between France and Germany, the mutual suspicion of England and Germany, and the conflicting interests of Austria and Russia. Added to them came the disturbing element of the Balkans. Greece is bound by treaty to Servia, and Rumania to Russia, and if the Balkans ever get involved there would be the eternal Turkish question again. The concert of Europe had in fact become a myth, and its place was gradually taken by two opposing camps, or more softly put, a balance of power.

A survey of the European situation makes it clear, how very much most of the continental powers are interested in anything that would tend to disturb the new equilibrium. *Austria* first of all, will not have at any cost a "greater Servia" at its back, a Slav Federation, a great Balkan power, or even a Servia under Russian influence. *Russia* cannot get over the part played by Germany at the Congress of Berlin nor has she forgiven the Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Itself a Slav country it would do anything to create another Slav power at the back of Austria. Checked in the Pacific, possibly checked also at the Persian Gulf, and still in search of an ice-free port, any rearrangements on the Mediterranean through the instrumentality of Servia would be for Russia an advantage gained. *Germany* is pledged to assist Austria, and with Austrian help aims at a lead in Europe. For this purpose it would do anything to break the Franco-Russian and British *entente* which lies in the way of her ambitions. Austria too knows on her part that without German help she cannot stand alone in Europe or hold her heterogeneous Empire. *France* will not forget 1870, and has still her eye on her ancient and natural frontier of the Rhine, and its lost Provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. *Italy* had thrown in her lot till yesterday with Germany and with Austria whom she had once fought. But as a Mediterranean State she cannot stand against France, a Mediterranean power, and England with her command of the same. Its Mediterranean and North African interests in fact prevent her from setting herself against France and England. *Servia* wants to get its "natural" frontiers, at any rate find an outlet in the Adriatic. *Greece* is bound to Servia, and *Rumania* to Russia. *Bulgaria*, with Servia on one side and Rumania on the other can hardly come

in, even if it be to recover what she has lost recently. But *Turkey* unless kept back by the Mediterranean powers, would see in this whole conflict an opportunity for regaining some of its old boundaries. The "sick man of Europe" has always tried to restore himself during the quarrels of his doctors.

The position of *England* in this whole conflict is dictated by, what to her is a vital necessity, the maintenance of the peace and balance of Europe. It cannot be clearly understood without a survey of the relative positions of the other great powers, particularly those of the two European Alliances. All the diplomatic history of Europe, since France signed a treaty with Russia in 1891, has centred round these two groups, and more and more within the last ten years. Events have moved so rapidly especially within the last four years. During this period the whole European situation has grown with almost bewildering swiftness. By 1891 the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy was an accomplished fact. The *Dual Entente* between Russia and France began in that year. The Triple Entente did not begin till 1904, and even then it was nothing in the nature of a definite agreement. If there was any balance of power at all in Europe, it was a very unstable balance. And this was due first of all to the absence *then* of any direct clash of interests between England and the powers of the Triple Alliance, and secondly to the very equivocal position of Russia in the early years of the Entente in the Entente group. Russia had seethed with indignation when Bosnia and Herzegovina were given to Austria. She had fought Turkey alone, and the powers had denied her the spoils. And when at length Servia cried out at the final Austrian annexation of these two provinces in 1908, the Kaiser had peremptorily warned the Czar that any support he would give to Servia in her claims would be resisted by Austria and Germany at all costs. Still Russia would not appear to have bound herself definitely in the Triple Entente. She had of course allied herself definitely with France. She was one with her in her opposition to Germany. France had even tried to dissuade her from the war with Japan, as her absence in the East would weaken her support for France at home, and would make room for German ascendency. Still she launched on the war in the Pacific. Mukden and Tsushima, however, sent her back staggered and torn. She could recover herself only by foreign help. Dependant now on foreign borrowings her only strength lay in the skill with which she could maintain good relations with both Germany on the one side, and England and France on the other, Therefore she oscillated. With Germany, she made the Potsdam Agreement in 1910 behind the back of her allies, getting her position in Persia recognised and in return recognising the German venture in the Bagdad Railway. It was enough to startle England and France Only three years before she had signed the Anglo-Russian Convention guaranteeing the integrity of Persia, and refraining from any interference in Afghanistan and Tibet. The Potsdam agreement had therefore come as a most disagreeable surprise. There was the fear of her getting into " the orbit of German diplomacy,' and these were the preliminary signs. The result was that Sir Edward Grey practically acquiesced in the Russian position in Northern Persia.' Even the Trans-Persian Railway with all its strategic danger could not be opposed because, as Lord Morley plainly put it, our refusal in the matter would involve "a yet greater danger." Russia had to be prevented somehow or other from falling in with Germany.

With France there could be no such fear. On the other hand France had been trying for years to get a friend in Europe. With England she had had a history of enmity. She had got Russia no doubt. But after Potsdam could Russia be relied upon? At a secret meeting

Russia had come to terms with the old, old enemy of the French. France, therefore, could not but throw herself more and more in English arms. England had been her unswerving friend at Algeciras. And when suddenly in 1911 Germany, strengthened by the Potsdam agreement, sent the "*Panther*" to Agadir England warned her off. The seal was set to the friendship made in Morocco. And for Germany the Anglo-French Entente was now a stern reality. England had given France not only her diplomatic support against German aggressions, but had appeared even ready to back it up by armed support. This determined Germany's naval programme. It was obvious to her that England and France were one and also that England was ready even with sacrifices to maintain Russian friendship.

Early in the autumn of 1911 the Balkans blazed up. It seemed that now at all events the Balkan States were united in sending Turkey back from Europe. "The friend of Islam," as the German Emperor had declared himself, remained, however, silent. Any intervention on his part would have swiftly brought Russia on the other side in spite of Potsdam. And Germany had to content herself with Bismarck's maxim that the Balkans were "not worth the bones of a Pommeranian grenadier." Her only policy was henceforth to be "on the waters."

In the summer of 1912 Lord Haldane had gone on a mission to Germany. The naval rivalry was year by year becoming more and more acute. It is generally believed that he proposed mutual retrenchments. But Germany would only agree if England would bind herself not to take part in any hostile combination against her. Here the negotiations broke. But they were enough to make France nervous. The effect in France of a proposed Anglo-German agreement was fear, fear that Germany would thereby be left free to pursue her rivalry against France on land. France could have made peace by giving Germany what she most wants, access to the French money market. But such a thing, as was once hinted by Sir Edward Grey, would be taken by Engl‹nd as France falling in "the orbit of German diplomacy." For some time discussions went on in the British and German press about an agreement on colonial and economic questions. But Mr. Churchill's Glasgow speech of that year and the supplementary naval estimates evinced no signs of an approach to agreement.

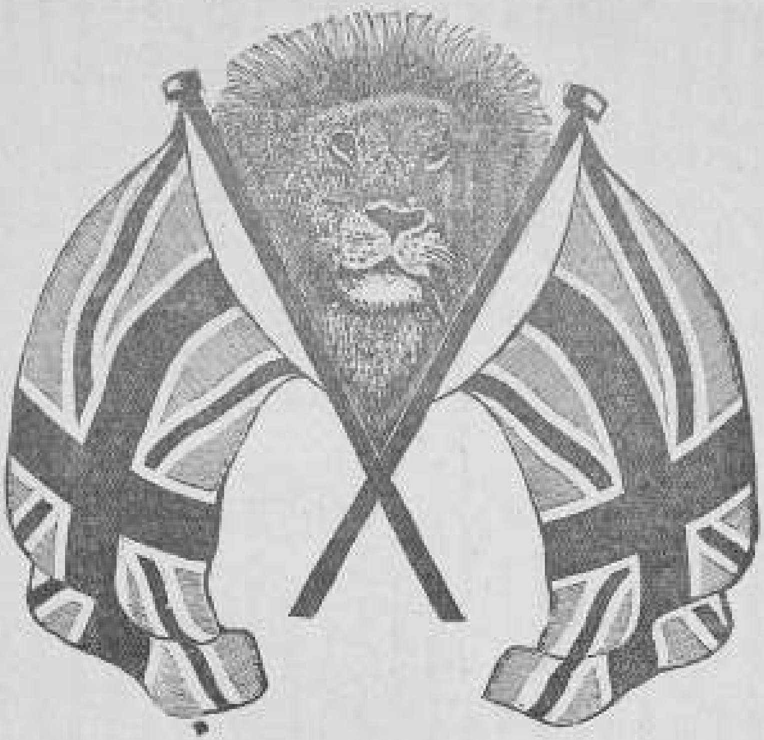
For some time past the *Morning Post* had started a campaign for a more definite alliance with France. She would take charge of British interests in the Mediterranean and increase her land strength. And in September it was announced that the French fleet at Brest had left for the Mediterranean. The French coast in the North and West was thus left undefended. But no French minister, least of all M. Delcasse, would dare have exposed the coast of France without a definite understanding or a naval convention with her friend and neighbour. France in the meantime had tried to bring about a healthy change in the Franco-Russian relations which she thought were disturbed at Potsdam. M. Delcasse had been sent some months before to St. Petersburg to re-establish the old relations. In August M. Poincare, then Premier, had gone to St. Petersburg on an official visit. The questions discussed and agreed upon were the building of Russian super-Dreadnoughts and strategic railways, the raising of the Russian strength to 1,800,000, and the three years' Military Service law in France. The terms of a new naval convention that would make the Franco-Russian alliance effective on the sea were drawn up, and by some means or another they got published in the French papers. In the meantime Russia had signed a convention with Japan to be assured of her position in the Pacific. And the Anglo-Japanese Convention of 1902 was renewed in 1912. The Triple Entente, with Japan to

PRINCE BISMARCK.

A GHOSTLY COUNSEL.

The Ghost of Bismarck: Yes, Sir, there is plenty of "Blood and Iron" but where are the Brains.

"*The Saturday Westminister.*"



LION WITH TWO FLAGS.

guard its interests in the East had become a definite fact and a stern fact. Added to them was the equivocal position of Italy in the Triple Alliance. Throughout her adventures in Tripoli Italy was on intimate relations with Russia. And her Adriatic interests made her jealous of any Austrian move in the Balkans.

For Germany, all this meant a diplomatic defeat. This was the answer to all her ambitions, to her naval programme, to the declaration of the Sultan of Morrocco's independence, to the *Panther* at Agadir, to the Kaiser's "shining armour" speech at Vienna, to the Kruger telegram, the *Daily Telegraph* interview, and the Bagdad Railway. She had not succeeded in getting Russia into the Triple Alliance. And she had not succeeded in keeping Italy within it. She had set the Triple Entente finally and definitely against herself, and the only friend she had left was Austria. England held the Channel and the North Sea, France the Mediterranean, and Russia the Baltic. Germany felt herself hemmed in and thwarted in what she considered her "legitimate" ambitions. For the Triple Entente it was purely a protection against any wanton German aggression. England had seen in Germany a dangerous naval rival. And France and Russia in the interests of their continental position feared the growth of a "greater Germany." The diplomatic tension had grown. The naval rivalry, the naval conventions, military reorganisation, the three years' Service in France, were all symptoms of the diplomatic tension. Two hostile camps had set themselves against each other. The tension was becoming acute. And a lunatic's shot was enough to march the armies of Europe. It was the spark that fell on the European magazine, long accumulated and heavily charged.

Since the Franco-Prussian war the whole European situation has been dominated by the fear of a "greater Germany." A "greater Germany" would mean another fall for France. Without English help France would most certainly go down. It went down in 1870 when Bismarck by maintaining a "correct" attitude kept the Powers at arm's length. The fall of France meant the growth of an Imperial Germany, and with it the growth of imperious armaments in all the great countries of Europe. During the Boer War it was only Russia and the difficulty of a Franco-German entente over Alsace-Lorraine that stood in the way of a continental intervention against England. And the lesson of such a situation was the necessity for England of having some understanding with some powers. In 1902 the first Anglo-Japanese Convention was signed. England as the friend of Japan and France as the friend of Russia tried to prevent, and when it did come about, to limit, the Russo-Japanese war. Because any intervention on their part would have brought them against each other, would have brought England against both France and Russia. And this would have made room for German ascendency. Neither England, nor France nor Russia desired such a consummation and the result was the Anglo-French Entente of 1904 and the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907. In any European conflict therefore, France is bound to help Russia. Her very position in Europe is such that she must have at least one permanent continental friend. Russia too would go down before Germany if it stood alone. And any weakening of France or Russia would mean danger for England. For these two countries are for her advance guards in Europe. There is the further danger of a greater Germany absorbing the Danubian countries. A greater Germany would be all supreme at Vienna. And Berlin and Vienna would together dictate in the Balkans, in Turkey, and in the end in all Europe. England must therefore either help France and Russia in their common fight against Germany, or face a Germany predominant in Europe. She has two clear duties in the present conflict. She

must at all costs maintain the European equilibrium and prevent the growth of a greater Germany dominating Europe. Its equally paramount duty is to guard the independence of its two buffer States, Belgium and Holland. Any violation of the independence of these two countries would practically bring the German frontier almost within cannon-shot of the British coast. And *this* Britain must resist at all costs.

The Conflict Between the Teuton and the Slav

AUSTRIA AND SERVIA

BY PROF. FERRAND E. CORLEY, M. A.

(Professor, Madras Christian College)

ALL the world knows that the immediate occasion for the present European war was the ultimatum presented to Servia by Austria-Hungary, in consequence of the dastardly assassination of the Archduke Franz-Ferdinand and his consort at Serajevo. But this apparently political affair, this crisis in the relations of two neighbouring states, cannot be fully appreciated unless it is viewed in relation to the racial contest between the Teuton and the Slav—a secular antagonism by no means fully understood by the ordinary reading public. In the light of that antagonism we shall be able to see not only why Austria deliberately used the assassination as a *casus belli*, but also why the war she provoked spread so quickly to other powers.

In the early part of the middle ages, a large tract of Central Europe was left derelict by the Germans who invaded the Empire. Most of this "no man's land" was then occupied by the Slavs, who also spread over the greater part of Eastern Europe; while the decline of the Eastern Empire subsequently permitted them to permeate most of the Balkan peninsula. When the tide of Germanism, after shaping the Empire of the Franks, turned once more eastward, it found the way barred by enormous masses of Slavs. Their own ingrained deficiency in political organization conspired with adverse circumstances to prevent the Slavs from erecting in Eastern Central Europe that great empire which destiny seemed to have promised them. At the end of the seventh century, Central Europe beyond the Elbe, from the Baltic to the Adriatic and the Ægean, was in the hands of the Slavs. The history of the subsequent centuries is a story of successful encroachment by the German at the expense of the Slav. By the creation of "Marks" or Border districts, by the creation and control of bishoprics, and by the crusading enterprise of the Teutonic Knights and the Knights of the Sword, the expansive Teutons steadily reabsorbed and assimilated the lower valleys of the Elbe and the Oder, and the coastlands of the Baltic, and firmly planted themselves on the upper and middle Danube. Prussia, the modern incarnation of aggressive Germanism, grew out of the Mark of Brandenburg, augmented by the inheritance of the military orders. The earliest "Prussians" known to history were Lithuanians, the kinsmen of the Slavs.

But the Teuton, in his *Drang nach Osten*, has not enjoyed uniform success. Here and there, the Slav has held his own. Thus in Bohemia, an independent Slav state grew up, which once bade fair to assume imperial proportions. Political changes brought it within the orbit of the

Holy Roman Empire; and the proverbial felicity of Austria in the marriage market has made it an appanage of the Austrian Crown. But to this day, the Slav population, the Czechs, outnumber the Germans by about two to one;* and if any drastic reconstruction of the map of Europe should follow the present war, Bohemia might prove a factor of considerable importance. Moreover the Poles have steadfastly resisted the process of Germanisation. The political ineptitude of Poland played into the hands of her greedy neighbours, and her territory was divided between Austria, Russia and Prussia. But in Austria, the acquiescence of the Poles in the actual government has only been purchased by the grant of something like Home Rule; and the troubles encountered by the Germans in their endeavour to Germanise Posen are a by-word. The Tsar's Proclamation is based on the expectation that the Poles in both Empires will be eager to throw off the German yoke.

Even the measure of success achieved would have been impossible, had not the Germans been assisted in their contest with the Slavs by a third racial factor—the Magyars or Hungarians. The situation of the Dual Monarchy to-day is the natural outcome of the process that has lasted through the centuries. Two minorities, the German and the Magyar, have combined to oppress the Slavs who outnumber them both. From their first appearance in Central Europe, the Magyars have proved the bane of the Slavs. It was they who, about A. D. 900, destroyed the Slav Kingdom of Moravia, and so broke the hope of a state which might have organized the Slavonic races into a great Empire. See how the great Slav historian Palacky views the invasion of the Magyars. "It was the direst calamity our race has ever endured. From Holstein to the Peloponnese stretched a line of Slav peoples—far from united, differing widely in their customs, but everywhere energetic, and ripe for civilisation. In the midst of this line, a nucleus was taking shape under the efforts of Svatopluk (the hero of Moravia). Just as the Latin influence enabled the Frankish monarchy to take shape in the west, so a Slavonic empire might have taken shape under the influence of Byzantium in the east. The destiny of eastern Europe has turned out far otherwise. The arrival of the Magyars at the heart of the growing organism shattered all these hopes."* Whether, as some have maintained, the Magyar invasion was actually solicited by the German Arnulf, we cannot say; but it is certain that the Hungarians played the Germans' game by shattering the Moravian kingdom.† Some three centuries later, after the Magyars had consolidated their kingdom on the lower Danube, we find them definitely leagued with the Germans against the Slavs of Bohemia. On the fatal field of Durnkrut (1278), Rudolf of Hapsburg and his Magyar ally broke the power of the chivalrous Ottokar, and proceeded to dismember his kingdom.

The history of Austria-Hungary for the last half century turns chiefly on the long sustained "triangular duel" for predominance in the plains of the Danube. In the "sixties" of last century, the House of Hapsburg was compelled to relinquish at the same time all hopes of domination in Germany and Italy alike. Forced at last to find the centre of her power within her own dominions, she had to reckon with the Slavs, as well as with the Magyars. Of late, the national sentiments of all the non-German races had been rudely trampled on; all alike were regarded as subjects—a policy which in 1848 had brought Hungary to open revolt, while in 1866 her sympathy with Prussia was hardly disguised. A glance at the

* In the city of Prague, the proportion is more like six to one.

* Quoted by Louis Leger, History of Austria-Hungary, Ch. 6.

† See Lavisse and Rambaud, Histoire Generale, vol. I.

figures will make plain the nature of Austria's dilemma. The lands comprehensively known as "Austria," have to-day a population of about 28 millions. Ten millions only are Germans, seventeen millions are Slavs. In the lands linked together by the Crown of Hungary, the Magyars number nine millions, the Germans two; the Slavs count five millions, the Roumanians about three. A continued subjection of all other races to the German was obviously impossible. The recognition of national claims all round was too liberal a policy for the Austrians to accept. Besides, the Magyars formed a compact mass, and knew their own minds. The unity of the Slavs was imperfect. Poles, Ruthenians, Czechs, Slovenes, Serbs and Croats—they differed in idiom, in traditions, and in religion. The feuds of Catholic and Orthodox cut across their community of race. The Magyars were masters of the situation, and knew how to turn their opportunity to account. The *Ausgleich*, or agreement, which has ever since been the basis of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, is in essence a compact between the German and the Magyar to support one another in exploiting the Slavs. Beust, the reactionary German Minister of Francis Joseph by whom it was concluded, is reported to have said to a Hungarian statesman—"You watch your hordes, and we will watch ours." The story may be apocryphal; but it is a just summary of his policy. Dualism, therefore, is the essence of the recent history of this curious Empire. The Emperor-King recognises the national claims of the Germans in Austria, and of the Magyars in Hungary. To the claims of Czechs in Bohemia, of Poles, Slovaks, Serbs, Croats and Roumanians, he turns a deaf ear. Even the partial modifications of the system only confirm its general character. The compact mass of Serbs and Croats in Slavonia and Croatia (crown lands of Hungary) is allowed a measure of local autonomy, but in Hungary proper there is no toleration for Slav ideals. The Poles in Galicia have been bought off with the grant of Home Rule, which leaves them free to oppress the subject Ruthenians. But the Ruthenians are only Slavs. There can be no such concession to the Czechs in Bohemia; for there the minority is German. Thus the policy of a thousand years ago rules on the Danube still. German and Magyar join hands, and the unfortunate Slav goes to the wall. It is often said that the union of Austria-Hungary is purely personal, beginning and ending in the Emperor-King. Without disparaging Francis Joseph, we may say that this view is entirely superficial, since it ignores the deep community of policy which unites the two halves of the Duality. Austria and Hungary are mutually indispensable. Without the support of the other, each of them must at once surrender to the Slavs. Teuton and Magyar are held together not only by their common sovereign but by their common antagonism to the Slavs whom they both oppress.

So far, we have looked only to the internal relations of the Dual Monarchy. The same problem remains, when we turn to foreign affairs, but its importance is enormously intensified. The root of the trouble is that the masses of Slavs within the Empire are geographically and ethnically continuous with still larger masses without—in Russia, especially in Poland, and in the Balkan Peninsula. As far as the Balkans are concerned, everything hinges on Servia. In that fact lies the explanation of the present war.

To most men, Servia is a mushroom state—a parody of a nation, somehow sprung from the break-up of Turkey. Her achievements in the war of 1912-13 came to them as a surprise. But the better informed were hardly surprised. An anecdote related of Lord Salisbury throws light on the Servian problem. A Servian politician, endeavouring to enlist on behalf of his country the sympathies of Britain, the natural champion of

the smaller nations, dwelt on her glorious past. "Yes, yes," came the rather impatient answer, "your past is all very well. It would be much more to the point if you had a seaport." There was Servia's situation: she had a past, she had not a single seaport. Servians can never forget that from the twelfth to the fourteenth century their nation played a prominent part in history. Stephen Dusan, especially, from 1336 to 1356, was a veritable Emperor of the Balkans, and even aspired to challenge the power of Byzantium. Recalling Palacky's outline of what might seem to have been the destined history of the Slavs, we may ask, what hindered its fulfilment? The Serbs on the Danube, under the inspiration of Byzantium, from which they drew their religion and their culture, might very well have effected for eastern Europe what the Franks achieved for the west. Unfortunately, all such possibilities were frustrated by the inroads of the Turks. Disunion, the perennial failing of the Slavs, impaired their strength. On the fatal field of Kossovo, in 1389, the Turks triumphed. The subjection of Servia was quickly followed by that of Bulgaria; and in little more than half a century later the Turkish conquest was consummated by the taking of Constantinople.

The political history of Servia from the fifteenth century to the close of the eighteenth may be described in a few words. Turkish dominion was pushed forward over the whole of the Peninsula, and even into Hungary, and the Serbs remained in subjection. With the wars of the eighteenth century, when the Emperor-King's forces drove the Turks out of Hungary, it seemed as though deliverance might come from the side of Austria. But the preoccupations of the Empire in Italy and western Europe prevented the prosecution of this task. Prince Eugene took Belgrade; but Servia as a whole, including Bosnia, remained in Turkish hands. The nineteenth century furnishes a story of progressive emancipation, in which the Serbs, like the rest of the Slavs, learned to look to Russia, rather than to Austria, for support. Partial autonomy under a supreme chief (1804), afterwards under Princes (from 1817), was completed in 1830, under the terms of the Treaty of Adrianople. Complete independence and the abolition of the tribute to Turkey were Servia's gains from the war of 1877, together with an enlargement of territory partially reversed at Berlin. In 1882, the Prince took the title of King. But the most serious blow to Servia's ambitions given at Berlin was not the restriction of her territory, or that of the kindred Serbs in Montenegro, but the handing over of Bosnia-Herzegovina to Austrian administration. As might have been expected, the subsequent annexation (1908) placed under the Dual Monarchy these lands, to which Servia naturally considered she had, both by race and by history, a prescriptive right of succession.

Apart from her traditional jealousy of Bulgaria, responsible for a war in 1885, suspended in common hatred of the Turks in the Balkan War, only to break out again over the division of the spoils, the politics of Servia have been the natural product of her situation. Cut off on every side from the sea, she has been at the mercy of her neighbours. Turkish misrule made the route to Salonika practically valueless. The Austrian military occupation of the Sanjak of Novibazar cut her off from Montenegro, which in any case offered few maritime facilities. As a consequence, there was a prolonged economic war between Servia and Austria, which served to embitter their racial and political antagonism. The ostentatious restoration of the Sanjak to Turkey, which accompanied the annexation of 1908, did not improve these relations, the wedge of Turkish territory continuing to sever the two Serb states. The successful outcome of the Balkan war, dividing the Sanjak between Servia and

Montenegro, has no doubt contributed to the development of the crisis.

The political situation was thus full of dangerous possibilities. The "Great Servian Idea," aiming at an eventual re-union of all the Servian lands in a single state, might plead the justification of the spirit of nationality; and the hope of recovering Bosnia, possibly even Croatia and Slavonia, from Austria, need not seem more hopeless, nor less defensible, than the recovery of Lombardy and Venetia by United Italy. On the other hand, Austria could not fail to view with suspicion a policy which had for its logical goal the dismemberment of her own dominions. But we must look deeper if we are to understand Austria's action in regard to the Serajevo tragedy. So far as she was prompted only by justifiable resentment of an inflammatory political campaign, she might have secured all she required with the concurrence and support of the rest of Europe. Her decision—and mark, it is the decision of Germany no less than of Austria—to challenge a general European war by presenting to Servia an ultimatum which was never meant to be accepted, can only be understood in the light of larger considerations. War, under such circumstances, could have for its object nothing less than the annihilation of Servia. It was bound, therefore, to provoke the action of Russia, the protector of the Slavs, with interests of her own in the Balkans; and war between Austria and Russia could not fail to involve other powers. But why was Austria so anxious to annihilate Servia?

It is here that we find once more exhibited on a most momentous scale the age-long conflict of the Teuton and the Slav. The growing industrialism of the Germans has for some time past impelled them to seek at one and the same time an outlet for their superfluous population and a field from which to supplement the straitened agricultural resources of the home-lands. Asia Minor and Mesopotamia offer, with singular felicity, the very opening desired. The Baghdad Railway and its subsidiary enterprises are part of a process of commercial penetration, to be helped, no doubt, by the "mailed fist" if circumstances required, by which the Germans counted on securing the reversion of the "Sick Man's" inheritance between the Ægean and the Persian Gulf. To make their position quite secure, it was necessary that Austria should resume her interrupted march to the Ægean. Let her once obtain an outlet to Salonika, and all would be well. The position of the Germans as a Mediterranean power would be assured, and a highway provided to the coveted lands in Anatolia. To this aim we must attribute the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina, in which it is significant that Austria received the whole-hearted, not to say aggressive, support of Germany. Quite apart from any Pan-Slavist propaganda, any pressing of the "Great Servia" idea, the kingdom of Servia stood in the way of this German plan of expansion. On one plea or another, therefore, Servia was to be destroyed.

It is evident that an enlarged Servia—not simply a state on the scale of Dusan's empire, but a Servia big enough to stand alone, or a Servia supported by a confederacy of Balkan states—would bar the way, while a Servia which, by access to the sea, could find other markets than those of central Europe, would no longer be amenable to economic pressure from Austria. The restoration of the Sanjak to Turkey, the refusal to allow Servia a port on the Adriatic, the zeal for the enlargement of the new Albania, all spring from the same motive. They argue no love for Turkey nor for Albania, but simply the fixed determination to keep Servia small, and hem her in on every side. A large, free Servia, in a position to seek support from over-seas, would be a very serious barrier on the road to the Ægean. Further, even the existence of an independent Servia was bound to be disturbing to Austria's equilibrium. If it did not positively

foster revolt, on Pan-Servian lines (a danger of which, as indicated above, the Italian precedent furnished a sinister warning), it would inevitably strengthen any demands of the Serbs in Austria-Hungary for the redress of their grievances. Great or small, then, the Servian kingdom was a rock of offence to the militant policy of the Germans. At the time of the annexation of Bosnia, an anonymous article in the *Danzers Armee Zeitung* showed what were the views current in certain circles, views which have apparently carried the day in Vienna and Berlin, if not in Budapest. The writer openly advocated war with the Servian states, as a means to installing Austria as the neighbour of Turkey on the Macedonian frontier. Two aims, he said, should dominate their policy—(1) to secure hegemony in the Balkans, and (2) with this achieved to effect an expansion to the east. The *Drang nach Osten* has prevailed. Servia, which barred the way, was marked for destruction. The Serajevo incident provided only the excuse; it did not cause the war.

The late Professor Freeman always taught us that the sequel to the break-up of Turkey would be the break-up of Austria. The implied chain of causation is being laid bare to our gaze. Turkey's collapse before the Balkan League led to an enormous enhancement of the power of the southern Slavs. The equilibrium on the Danube, dependent on the domination of the Slavs by the Teuton and the Magyar, was thereby imperilled. In a sense, both Servia and Austria-Hungary are fighting for their very life. For Servia, defeat means annihilation. For Austria-Hungary, it means at least disintegration, and the end of the old domination. But the weight thrown into the struggle by the German Powers can only be appreciated when we remember that they are fighting not simply for their precarious lordship of the Danube but also for the eventual control of the Near East.

The Serajevo Tragedy

THE IMMEDIATE CAUSE OF THE WAR.

CAN there be anywhere in Europe a more pathetic figure than that of the aged Emperor of Austria? Such is the thought which is likely to be provoked in the minds of people who have watched the pathetic course of life of the proudest monarch in Europe. But this is perhaps the least significant aspect of the tragedy. For, the Bosnian student when he shot the Archduke and his consort had done a deed which was bound to set Europe ablaze. And such a consequence has come to pass.

On the 28th June 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the heir-apparent to the Austrian Throne, and his consort were shot dead, while driving through the streets of Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia. The shots were fired by a Bosnian High School student.

It is reported that a Pan-Servian movement began in Bosnia when the news of the impending visit of the Archduke and his wife was first announced. Attempts were made, it is said, to persuade them to give up their visit, but the Archduke was determined to go, though his wife was unwilling.

In certain Servian quarters His Imperial Highness was regarded as one of the greatest opponents of the Pan-Servian movement.

The assassin is a Servian student named Prinzip. Interrogated, he declared that he had for a long time intended to kill some eminent personage from nationalist motives. He denied that he had accomplices.

When the Emperor Francis Joseph was informed of the tragedy at Serajevo, he exclaimed, "Horrible! Horrible!! I am spared nothing."

The new heir-presumptive is the Archduke Charles Francis Joseph, a nephew of the deceased.

The news of the assassination caused the most profound sensation in Europe. The practically universal comment on the crime at Serajevo was that it was a political one, but that it would involve no change in Austria-Hungary beyond increasing the tension with Servia. But a section of the Russian press treated the removal of the Archduke as the removal of a danger to European peace which would give Austria an opportunity of reconsidering the course she was following. The semi-official Austrian Journal *Pester Lloyd*, discussing the political effects of the assassinations, said that there would be no change in the Government's attitude towards the Bosnians. But the journal hoped that, in the interests of her own good name, Servia would be able to stem the Pan-Servian agitation.

The Emperor Francis Joseph sent the following letter to the Austrian and Hungarian Premiers:—

The unhappy deed which has cut off my beloved nephew and his noble-hearted consort has plunged me and my house into most afflicting grief. The fanaticism of a small band of misguided individuals cannot shake the sacred ties of affection between me and my people, whose joy and sorrow I have shared for sixty-five years. If I can bequeath to my successor the pledge of their love as my most priceless legacy, that will be the dearest reward of my paternal care.

The Emperor issued a proclamation to the Army and Navy in which he says:—

"We bow in grief to the inscrutable will of the Almighty, who has demanded an immeasurable sacrifice. Nevertheless we do not abandon the hope of a prosperous future, convinced of the Monarchy's sure refuge in the devotion of the loyal Austro-Hungarian forces."

The semi-official *Pester Lloyd* criticised the discourtesy of semi-official Servian comments on the murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand and warned Belgrade of the necessity of an immediate change of tone and of honourably fulfilling obligations in connection with the crime, which, the newspaper considered, was undoubtedly promoted in Belgrade.

The Archduke Francis Ferdinand was the heir-apparent to the Hapsburg Throne. He was the son of the Archduke Charles Louis by his second marriage with the daughter of the king of the two Sicilies. He was born at Glatz in 1863, and was a Major in the 4th Dragoon Regiment. In April 1878, he received the order of the Golden Fleece, and in the same month was gazetted an officer in an Infantry Regiment. The Archduke was an assiduous officer and solidly earned his promotion. After the death of Archduke Rudolph, it was generally recognised that, in the event of a demise of the Crown, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand would succeed. In order to prepare him for this illustrious destiny, he was sent on a voyage round the world, was created a General, and was given a befitting establishment in Vienna.

Those who knew him best, describe him as one of the most silent of men, and one of the sanest men to boot. The Archduke was said to have a political programme *viz.*, the transformation of the Dual Monarchy into a Federalist state and bringing either by cajolery or by force, not only Montenegro and Servia within the Imperial fold, but also Bulgaria, the Near East trouble notwithstanding.

The Archduke Francis Ferdinand was of an intense, impulsive nature. He was in every respect a vigorous personality. In him the warm blood of his mother, the Archduchess Maria Annunziata, daughter of King Ferdinand II, of the two Sicilies, never belied its southern quality. Though his education was mainly Austrian and was—up to the moment of his unexpected succession to the Heir Apparentship after the tragedy of Mayerling in January 1889—scarcely calculated to fit him for his position, he strove manfully and successfully to broaden and deepen his knowledge. Save in military matters, his education, in the larger sense of the term, may be said to have begun at the age of twenty-six. By dint of application he since mastered the Bohemian and the Magyar languages, and acquired extensive knowledge of law, history, administration, and constitutional government. Then came his visit round the world already referred to which gave him numerous opportunities to prove his skill as a crack shot, and developing incidentally, that keen and statesmanlike interest in naval affairs that prompted his efforts to bring the excellent Austro-Hungarian Navy up to the highest technical and tactical standard. The late Archduke may be regarded as the creator of the Austro-Hungarian Dreadnoughts.

In recent years, the late Archduke was undoubtedly the power behind the Austrian Throne, but in his earlier years, he was one of the most

SERAJEVO.

The capital of Bosnia where the Archduke Francis Ferdinand was assassinated. This murder was the immediate cause of the great European War.

On the 30th October, the Court at Serajevo sentenced five men to death by hanging in connection with this assassination and eleven others to varying terms of penal servitude, including Princep who shot the Archduke and Cabrinovic who threw the bomb. Each of these was sentenced to 20 years penal servitude.

ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND.
The assassinated Crown Prince of Austria, and his family.

ARCHDUKE CHARLES FRANCIS JOSEPH.
The Present Crown Prince of Austria, and his family.

unpromising pupils for one of the Crowns of Europe and for nearly ten years, Francis Joseph kept the heir to the Throne outside public affairs. But ultimately the Emperor realised that this rigid ostracism was bad for the future of his dominions and gradually the Archduke's influence grew until all the world realised that he had become a considerable factor in the Dual Monarchy. It is universally recognised in Vienna that Franz Ferdinand was mainly responsible for the annexation of Herzegovina and Bosnia where he met his death.

The Archduke was for a long time unwilling to marry. As time passed and it became evident that nothing would induce him to marry until the fancy seized him, he was allowed to gratify his long-cherished wish to make a tour round the world. During his journey, he kept a diary in which he noted down his various experiences; and on his return he was induced to publish it.

And interesting reading it is, if for nothing but the light it throws incidentally on his character: for, although it is as a rule strictly impersonal in tone—much of it is a sort of sport guide-book—just here and there are little touches which at any rate give hints as to the sort of man he is. He was very much impressed, he tells us, by what he saw in India, which was one of the countries he visited. It is only a dominant race, a race of born rulers, he maintained, that could hold rule here with so small a display of force. Not that he was a blind admirer of our Indian administration: he had no patience at all with the primitive fashion in which the Ryots cultivate their land—he writes on the subject as an expert—and he taxed the Government with neglect in not having taught them to cultivate it better.

On his return, the Archduke shocked the whole of Austria-Hungary by falling in love with Countess Sophie Chotek, the lady-in-waiting of the Archduchess Frederick.

There was, of course, much shrugging of shoulders in Vienna, much grumbling too, the general view being that it was through sheer "cursedness" that the Archduke had fallen in love with someone whom he could not marry, instead of with someone whom he could. For marry a Chotek he could not, it was taken for granted, as he could not marry without the consent of the Emperor; and everyone was sure that the Emperor would as soon think of consenting to his throwing himself into the Danube, as to his setting at defiance the Hapsburg marriage tradition. Besides, it was no mere question of family tradition: there were, as all the world knew, grave political reasons why the heir to the Austro-Hungarian Crowns should not marry a subject; as, were he to do so, his marriage would in Austria be merely morganatic, whereas in Hungary, where a marriage is a marriage in the eyes of the law, it would be legally binding. His wife, therefore, were he to become Emperor King, would legally be Queen of Hungary, although she could not be Empress of Austria; and her son, if she had one, might legally reign in Hungary, although not in Austria. Little wonder, therefore, that both Austrians and Hungarians scoffed openly when the possibility of a marriage between the Archduke and the Countess was first suggested; or that they declared, as they did, that it was an insult to the Emperor to suppose he would ever give his consent to a union so fraught with danger for the Empire.

One fine morning, however, they woke up to find that he actually had done what they had all sworn he never would do.

In political circles, the feeling was strong that the Emperor, before consenting to the Archduke's marriage, ought to have insisted on his renouncing his claim to the throne. Instead of this, however, he merely insisted on his renouncing any claim he might ever have to allow his wife or children to rank as members of the Imperial family.

On the 1st July 1900, the marriage took place, and the Emperor conferred on the bride the title of Princess Hohenberg. There were some who saw in many acts of the late Archduke subsequent to his marriage signs that his intention was to break the solemn renunciation which he made in 1900. But it is worse than useless now, to speculate what his intentions were, for the cruel hand of an assassin has unexpectedly removed him from the scene of his labours.

It has already been remarked that the sympathy of practically the whole of Europe was extended to the aged Emperor Francis Joseph at this hour of suffering. Nowhere was this sympathy more marked than in Great Britain. Sympathetic speeches were made in the House of commons regarding the tragedy and on the motion of the Rt. Hon. Mr. Asquith a unanimous vote of condolence was passed and sent to the aged sovereign.

Thus the *Times*:—

Since the Guillotine left the daughter of Louis XVI, a lonely orphan in the Temple, bereft of father, mother and aunt, by the executioner's axe, and of her boy

brother by the brutalities and the neglect of her gaolers, we can recall no history so tragic and so pathetic as has been this.

As Dr. E. J. Dillon writes in the *Daily Telegraph*, the Archduke's capacity for governing would seem to have been unduly depreciated, while his public utterances were generally misinterpreted.

But during the long, assiduous apprenticeship he served under Kaiser Franz Joseph, when Count Aehrenthal was in power, and since then, he had ample opportunity to survey and study the public affairs of the Empire from the Austrian, Hungarian, Slav, Catholic, Greek, Orthodox, and other points of view, and he utilised it to the full. It is understood that, in the light of that experience, he never ceased to consider the possibility of creating institutions, when the opportune hour should strike, by which some at least of the more pressing and difficult political problems might be permanently simplified, if not radically solved.

He recognised the vital importance of the Southern Slav question for the Monarchy, and wished at once to upset the Dual system, which he regarded as the main obstacle to proper treatment of the Austro-Hungarian Southern Slavs and to find a Roman Catholic "Croatian," as opposed to a Serb Orthodox, solution for the problem.

The Austrian Ultimatum to Servia.

On the 24th July Austria presented the following Ultimatum to Servia:—

On March 31, 1908, the Royal Servian Minister in Vienna, on the instructions of the Servian Government, made the following statements to the Imperial and Royal Government:—

"Servia recognises that the *fait accompli* regarding Bosnia has not affected her rights, and consequently she will conform to the decisions that the Powers will take in conformity with Article 25 of the Treaty of Berlin.

At the same time that Servia submits to the advice of the Powers, she undertakes to renounce the attitude of protest and opposition which she has adopted since October last. She undertakes, on the other hand, to modify the direction of her policy with regard to Austria-Hungary, and to live in future on good neighbourly terms with the latter."

The history of recent years, and in particular the painful events of June 28 last, have shown the existence in Servia of a subversive movement with the object of detaching a part of Austria-Hungary from the Monarchy. The movement, which had its birth under the eyes of the Servian Government, has had consequences on both sides of the Servian frontier in the shape of acts of terrorism and a series of outrages and murders.

Far from carrying out the formal undertakings contained in the declaration of March 31, 1908, the Royal Servian Government has done nothing to repress these movements. It has permitted the criminal machinations of various societies and associations and has tolerated unrestrained language on the part of the Press, apologies for the perpetrators of outrages, and the participation of officers and functionaries in subversive agitation. It has permitted an unwholesome propaganda in public instruction—in short, it has permitted all the manifestations which have incited the Servian population to hatred of the Monarchy and contempt of its institutions.

This culpable tolerance of the Royal Servian Government had not ceased at the moment when the events of June 28 last proved its fatal consequences to the whole world.

It results from the depositions and confessions of the criminal perpetrators of the outrage of June 28 that the Sarajevo assassinations were hatched in Belgrade, that the arms and explosives with which the murderers were provided had been given to them by Servian officers and functionaries belonging to the Narodna Obrana, and finally that the passage into Bosnia of the criminals and their arms was organised and effected by the chiefs of the Servian frontier service.

The above-mentioned results of the magisterial investigation do not permit the Austro-Hungarian Government to pursue any longer the attitude of expectant forbearance which it has maintained for years in face of the machinations hatched in Belgrade and thence propagated in the territories of the monarchy. These results, on the contrary, impose on it the duty of putting an end to intrigues which form a perpetual menace to the tranquility of the monarchy.

To achieve this end the Imperial and Royal Government sees itself compelled to demand from the Servian Government a formal assurance that it condemns this dangerous propaganda against the Monarchy and territories belonging to it, and that the Royal Servian Government shall no longer permit these machinations and this criminal and perverse propaganda.'

THE DEMANDS.

The Austrian Note demanded that the Servian Government shall publish in the front page of its official journal to-day a declaration

Condemning the propaganda directed against Austria, and 'sincerely deploring the fatal consequences of these criminal proceedings,'

Regretting that Servian officers and functionaries took part in the propaganda,

Formally warning officers and functionaries and the whole population of Servia that the Servian Government will proceed with the utmost rigour against persons who may be guilty of such machinations, which it will use all its efforts to anticipate and suppress.

This declaration, the Austrian Note says, must be communicated to the Servian army as an Order of the Day by King Peter.

The Servian Government must also undertake to

1.—Suppress publications which incite to hatred and contempt of Austria.

2.—Dissolve the Narodna Obrana and other societies addicted to propaganda against Austria.

3.—Eliminate anti-Austrian propaganda from public instruction in Servia.

4.—Remove from the army and administration all officers and officials guilty of propaganda against Austria, whose names and deeds Austria reserves to herself the right of communicating to Servia.

5.—Austrian representatives to help in the suppression of the Anti-Austrian movement.

6.—Take judicial proceedings against accessories to the assassination plot who are in Servia; Austrian delegates to take part in the investigation.

7.—Arrest without delay Major Voija Tankositch and Milan Ciganovitch, a Servian State employee, who have been compromised by the results of the Magisterial inquiry at Serajevo.

8.—Prevent the co-operation of Servian authorities in the illicit traffic in arms and explosives across the frontier; punish severely frontier officials at Achabatz and Loznica guilty of assisting the Serajevo assassins.

9.—Explain the unjustifiable utterances of high Servian officials who after the assassination spoke in interview in terms of hostility to Austria.

10.—Notify Austria without delay of the execution of those measures.

The Servian Reply to Austria.

The following is the Servian reply to the Austro-Hungarian Note and is dated 25th July:

The Royal Servian Government has received the communication of the Imperial and Royal Austro-Hungarian Government of the 10th of this month, and it is persuaded that its reply will remove all misunderstanding tending to threaten or to prejudice the friendly and neighbourly relations between the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and the Kingdom of Servia.

The Royal Government is aware that the protests made both at the tribune of the National Skopshtina and in the declarations and the acts of responsible representatives of the State—protests which were cut short by the declaration of the Servian Government made on March 18—have not been renewed towards the great neighbouring Monarchy on any occasion, and that since this time, both on the part of the Royal Governments which have followed on one another, and on the part of their organs, no attempt has been made with the purpose of changing the political and juridical state of things in this respect.

The Imperial and Royal Government has made no representations save concerning a scholastic book regarding which the Imperial and Royal Government has received an entirely satisfactory explanation. Servia has repeatedly given proofs of her pacific and moderate policy during the Balkan crisis and it is, thanks to Servia and the sacrifice she made exclusively in the interest of the peace of Europe that this peace has been preserved. The Royal Government cannot be held responsible for manifestations of a private nature such as newspaper articles and the peaceful work of societies—manifestations which occur in almost all countries as a matter of course, and which as a general rule escape official control—all the less in that the Royal Government, when solving a whole series of questions which came up between Servia and Austria-Hungary has displayed a great readiness to treat (*prevenance*) and in this way succeeded in settling the greater number to the advantage of the progress of the two neighbouring countries.

It is for this reason that the Royal Government has been painfully surprised by the statements according to which persons of the Kingdom of Servia are said to have taken part in the preparation of the outrage committed at Serajevo. It expected that it would be invited to collaborate in the investigation of everything bearing on this crime, and it was ready to prove by its action its entire correctness to take steps against all persons with regard to whom communications had been made to it thus acquiescing in the desire of the Imperial and the Royal Government.

The Royal Government is disposed to hand over to the Courts any Servian subject, without regard to his situation and rank, for whose complicity in the crime of Serajevo it shall have been furnished with proofs, and especially it engages itself to have published on the front page of the *Official Journal* of July 13-26 the following announcement:—

"The Royal Servian Government condemns all propaganda directed against Austria-Hungary, that is to say, all tendencies as a whole of which the ultimate object is to detach from the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy territories which form part of it, and it sincerely deplores the fatal consequence of these criminal actions. The Royal Government regrets that Servian officers and officials should, according to the communication of the Imperial and Royal Government, have participated in the above-mentioned propaganda, thereby compromising the good neighbourly relations to which the Royal Government solemnly pledged itself by its declaration of the 31st March, 1908. The Government, which disapproves and repudiates any idea or attempt to interfere in the destinies of the inhabitants of any part of Austria-Hungary whatsoever, considers it its duty to utter a formal warning to the officers, the officials, and the whole population of the Kingdom that henceforth it will proceed with the utmost rigour against persons who render themselves guilty of such actions, which it will use all its efforts to prevent and repress."

This announcement shall be brought to the cognizance of the Royal Army by an Order of the Day issued in the name of His Majesty the King by H. R. H. the Crown Prince Alexander, and shall be published in the next official bulletin of the Army.

(1) The Royal Government engages itself furthermore to lay before the next regular meeting of the Skupshtina an amendment to the Press Law punishing in the severest manner incitements to hate and contempt of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, and also all publications of which the general tendency is directed against the territorial integrity of the Monarchy. It

undertakes at the forthcoming revision of the Constitution to introduce in Article XXII of the Constitution an amendment whereby the above publications may be confiscated, which is at present categorically forbidden by the terms of Article XXII of the Constitution.

(2) The Government does not possess any proof nor does the Note of the Imperial and Royal Government furnish such, that the society Narodna Obrana and other similar societies have up to the present committed any criminal acts of this kind through the instrumentality of one of their members. Nevertheless the Royal Government will accept the demand of the Imperial and Royal Government and will dissolve the Narodna Obrana Society and any other society which shall agitate against Austria-Hungary.

(3) The Royal Servian Government engages itself to eliminate without delay from public instruction in Servia everything which aids or might aid in fomenting the propaganda against Austria-Hungary when the Imperial and Royal Government furnishes facts and proofs of this propaganda.

(4) The Royal Government also agrees to remove from the military service (all persons) whom the judicial inquiry proves to have been guilty of acts directed against the integrity of the territory of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, and it expects the Imperial and Royal Government to communicate at an ulterior date the names and the deeds of these officers and officials for the purposes of the proceedings which will have to be taken.

(5) The Royal Government must confess that it is not quite clear as to the sense and object of the demands of the Imperial and Royal Government that Servia should undertake to accept on her territory the collaboration of delegates of the Imperial and Royal Government, but it declares that it will admit whatever collaboration which may be in accord with the principles of international law and criminal procedure, as well as with good neighbourly relations.

(6) The Royal Government, as goes without saying, considers it to be its duty to open an inquiry against all those who shall eventually prove to have been involved in the plot of June 28, and who are in Servian territory. As to the participation at this investigation of agents of the Austro-Hungarian authorities delegated for this purpose by the Imperial and Royal Government, the Royal Government cannot accept this demand, for it would be a violation of the Constitution and of the law of criminal procedure. Nevertheless, in concrete cases it might be found possible to communicate the result of the investigation in question to the Austro-Hungarian representatives.

(7) On the very evening that the Note was handed in the Royal Government arrested Major Voislav Tankositch. As for Milan Ciganowitch, who is a subject of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, and who, until June 15, was employed as a beginner in the administration of the railways, it has not yet been possible to arrest him. In view of the ultimate inquiry the Imperial and Royal Government is requested to have the goodness to communicate in the usual form as soon as possible the presumptions of guilt as well as the eventual proofs of guilt against these persons which have been collected up to the present in the investigations at Serajevo.

(8) The Servian Government will strengthen and extend the measures taken to prevent the illicit traffic of arms and explosives across the frontier. It goes without saying that it will immediately order an investigation, and will severely punish the frontier officials along the line Schabatz Losnitza who have been lacking in their duties and who allowed the authors of the crime of Serajevo to pass.

(9) The Royal Government will willingly give explanations regarding the remarks made in interviews by its officials both in Servia and abroad after the attempt, and which, according to the statement of the Imperial and Royal Government, were hostile towards the Monarchy, as soon as the Imperial and Royal Government has forwarded it the passages in question of these remarks and as soon as it was shown that the remarks made were in reality made by the officials regarding whom the Royal Government itself was seen about collecting proofs.

(10) The Royal Government will inform the Imperial and Royal Government of the execution of the measures comprised in the preceding points, in as far as that has not already been done by the present Note as soon as each measure has been ordered and executed.

In the event of the Imperial and Royal Government not being satisfied with this reply the Royal Servian Government, considering that it is to the common interest not to precipitate the solution of this question, is ready as always to accept a pacific understanding either by referring this question to the decision of the Hague International Tribunal or to the Great powers which took part in the drawing up of the declaration made by the Servian Government on the 31st March 1908.

[With such a magazine as the Indian Review it is impossible to question the serious interest of our fellow subjects in the Dependency in all matters which affect world progress. The striking feature of such magazines is the detached and impartial spirit which animates the writers of the article and the ready reproof of any utterance which belittles the high ambition of the Indian nation to deserve the respect of all nations.—The Review of Reviews.]

☞ *The annual subscription to the Indian Review is Rs. 5 (Five) only including postage. Subscription can commence from any month. If you have not already seen the Review send postage stamps for As. Four for a specimen copy to G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras. Current issues are not given as specimen copies.*

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The Crisis and the Powers

DIPLOMATIC CONVERSATIONS AND DESPATCHES.

☛ The following correspondense selected from the Parliamentary White Paper recently issued by the British Foreign Office throws light on the development of the tension between the Powers culminating in the Continental War:—

SIR M. DE BUNSEN TO SIR EDWARD GREY.

Telegraphing on July 27 to Sir Edward Grey, the British Ambassador in Vienna says:—

I have had conversations with all my colleagues repesenting the Great Powers. The impression left on my mind is that the Austro-Hungarian Note was so drawn up as to make war inevitable; that the Austro-Hungarian Government are fully resolved to have war with Servia; that they consider their position as a Great Power at stake; and that until punishment has been administered to Servia it is unlikely that they will listen to proposals of mediation.

Sir Edward Grey telegraphed to the British Ambassador in Vienna, July 27:—

I said (to the Austrian Ambassador in London) that it seemed to me as if the Austrian Government believed that, even after the Servian reply (to the Austrian Note), they could make war on Servia anyhow without bringing Russia into the dispute. If they could make war on Servia and at the same time satisfy Russia well and good; but if not the consequences would be incalculable. Already the effect on Europe was one of anxiety. I pointed out that our Fleet was to have dispersed to-day but we had felt unable to let it disperse. We should not think of calling up the Reserves at this moment, but there was no menace in what we had done about the Fleet. . . It seemed to me that the Servian reply already involved the greatest humiliation to Servia that I had ever seen a country undergo.

Sir M. de Bunsen (British Ambassador in Vienna) to Sir Edward Grey, July 30.

Although I am not able to verify it, I have private information that the German Ambassador knew the text of the Austrian ultimatum to Servia before it was despatched, and telegraphed it to the German Emperor. I know from the German Ambassador himself that he endorses every line of it.

SIR E. GOSCHEN TO SIR EDWARD GREY

(Telegraphic.) *Berlin, 29th July, 1914.*

I was asked to call upon the Chancellor to-night. His Excellency had just returned from Potsdam.

He said that should Austria be attacked by Russia a European conflagration might, he feared, become inevitable, owing to Germany's obligations as Austria's ally, in spite of his continued efforts to maintain peace. He then proceeded to make the following strong bid for British neutrality. He said that it was clear, so far as he was able to judge the main principle which governed British policy, that Great Britain would never stand by and allow France to be crushed in any conflict there might be. That however, was not the object at which Germany aimed. Provided that neutrality of Great Britain were certain, every assurance would be given to the British Government that the Imperial Government aimed at no territorial acquisitions at the expense of France should they prove victorious in any war that might ensue.

I questioned His Excellency about the French colonies and he said that he was unable to give a similar undertaking in that respect. As regards Holland, however, His Excellency said that so long as Germany's adversaries respected the integrity and neutrality of the Netherlands, Germany was ready to give His Majesty's Government an assurance that she would do likewise. It depended upon the action of France what operations Germany might be forced to enter upon in Belgium, but when the war was over, Belgian integrity would be respected if she had not sided against Germany.

His Excellency ended by saying that ever since he had been Chancellor the object of his policy had been, as you were aware, to bring about an understanding with England; he trusted that these assurances might form the basis of that understanding which he so much desired. He had in mind a general neutrality agreement between England and Germany, though it was, of course, at the present moment too early to discuss details, and an assurance of British neutrality in the conflict which the present crisis might possibly produce, would enable him to look forward to realisation of his desire.

In reply to His Excellency's inquiry how I thought his request would appeal to you, I said that I did not think it probable that at this stage of events you would care to bind yourself to any course of action and that I was of opinion that you would desire to retain full liberty.

Our conversation upon this subject having come to an end, I communicated the contents of your telegram of to-day to His Excellency who expressed his best thanks to you.

Sir Edward Grey to Sir E. Goschen.

Sir Edward Grey's reply, dated the 30th July, was in the following terms:—

(Telegraphic.) *Foreign Office, 30th July* 1914.

Your telegram of the 29th July.

His Majesty's Government cannot for a moment entertain the Chancellor's proposal that they should bind themselves to neutrality on such terms.

What he asks us in effect is to engage to stand by while French colonies are taken and France is beaten so long as Germany does not take French territory as distinct from the colonies.

From the material point of view such a proposal is unacceptable, for France, without further territory in Europe being taken from her, could be so crushed as to lose her position as a Great Power, and become subordinate to German policy.

Altogether, apart from that, it would be a disgrace for us to make this bargain with Germany at the expense of France, a disgrace from which the good name of this country would never recover.

The Chancellor also in effect asks us to bargain away whatever obligation or interest we have as regards the neutrality of Belgium. We could not entertain that bargain either.

Having said so much, it is unnecessary to examine whether the prospect of a future general neutrality agreement between England and Germany offered positive advantages sufficient to compensate us for tying our hands now. We must preserve our full freedom to act as circumstances may seem to us to require in any such unfavourable and regrettable development of the present crisis as the Chancellor contemplates.

You should speak to the Chancellor in the above sense, and add most earnestly that the one way of maintaining the good relations between England and Germany is that they should continue to work together to preserve the peace of Europe; if we succeed in this object, the mutual relations of Germany and England will, I believe, be *ipso facto* improved and strengthened. For that object His Majesty's Government will work in that way with all sincerity and good will.

And I will say this. If the peace of Europe can be preserved, and the present crisis safely passed, my own endeavour will be to promote some arrangement to which Germany could be a party, by which she could be assured that no aggressive or hostile policy would be pursued against her or her allies by France, Russia, and ourselves, jointly or separately. I have desired this and worked for it, as far as I could, through the last Balkan crisis, and, Germany having a corresponding object, our relations sensibly improved. The idea has hitherto been too Utopian to form the subject of definite proposals, but if this present crisis, so much more acute than any that Europe has gone through for generations, be safely passed, I am hopeful that the relief and reaction which will follow may make possible some more definite *rapprochement* between the Powers than has been possible hitherto.

Sir Edward Grey to Sir E. Goschen.

(Telegraphic.) *Foreign Office, 31st July* 1914.

I hope that the conversations which are now proceeding between Austria and Russia may lead to a satisfactory result. The stumbling block hitherto has been Austrian mistrust of Servian assurances, and Russian mistrust of Austrian intentions with regard to the independence and integrity of Servia. It has occurred to me that, in the event of this mistrust preventing a solution being found by Vienna and St. Petersburg, Germany might sound Vienna, and I would undertake to sound St. Petersburg, whether it would be possible for the four disinterested Powers to offer to Austria that they would undertake to see that she obtained full satisfaction of her demands on Servia, provided that they did not impair Servian sovereignty and the integrity of Servian territory. As Your Excellency is aware, Austria has already declared her willingness to respect them. Russia might be informed by the four Powers that they would undertake to prevent Austrian demands going the length of impairing Servian sovereignty and integrity. All Powers would of course, suspend further military operations or preparations.

You may sound the Secretary of State about this proposal,

I said to German Ambassador this morning that if Germany could get any reasonable proposal put forward which made it clear that Germany and Austria were striving to preserve European peace, and that Russia and France would be unreasonable if they rejected it, I would support it at St. Petersburg and Paris, and go the length of saying that if Russia and France would not accept it His Majesty's Government would have nothing more to do with the consequences; but, otherwise, I told German Ambassador that if France became involved we should be drawn in.

You can add this when sounding Chancellor or Secretary of State as to proposal above.

The German reply to this appeal is contained in a despatch from Sir Edward Goschen on the 31st July. The German Secretary of State declared that it was impossible for the Imperial Government to consider any proposal until they had received an answer from Russia to the German ultimatum. Russia, as was inevitable, rejected the ultimatum, and Germany declared war.

King George and the Tsar.

Sir Edward Grey to Sir G. Buchanan (St. Petersburg).

Foreign Office, the 1st *August*, 1914, 3·30 *a. m.*

You should at once apply for an audience with his Majesty the Emperor, and convey to him the following personal message from the King:

"My Government has received the following statement from the German Government:—

"On July 29th the Russian Emperor requested the German Emperor by telegraph to mediate between Russia and Austria. The Emperor immediately declared his readiness to do so. He informed the Russian

Emperor of this by telegraph, and took the required action at Vienna. Without waiting for the result of this action Russia mobilised against Austria. By telegraph the German Emperor pointed out to the Russian Emperor that hereby his attempt at mediation would be rendered illusory. The Emperor further asked the Russian Emperor to suspend the military operations against Austria. This, however, did not happen. In spite of this the German Government continued their mediation in Vienna. In this matter the German Government have gone to the farthest limit of what can be suggested to a Sovereign State which is the ally of Germany.

"The proposals made by the German Government in Vienna were conceived entirely on the lines suggested by Great Britain, and the German Government recommended them in Vienna for their serious consideration. They were taken into consideration in Vienna this morning. During the deliberations of the Cabinet, and before they were concluded, the German Ambassador in St. Petersburg reported the mobilisation of the entire Russian Army and Fleet. Owing to this action on the part of Russia, the Austrian answer to the German proposals for mediation, which were still under consideration, was not given. This action on the part of Russia is also directed against Germany, that is to say, the Power whose mediation had been invoked by the Russian Emperor. We were bound to reply with serious counter measures to this action, which we were obliged to consider as hostile, unless we were prepared to endanger the safety of our country. We are unable to remain inactive in face of the Russian mobilisation on our frontier. We have therefore informed Russia that, unless she were prepared to suspend within twelve hours the warlike measures against Germany and Austria, we should be obliged to mobilise, and this would mean war. We have asked France if she would remain neutral during a German Russian War.

"I cannot help thinking that some misunderstanding has produced this deadlock. I am most anxious not to miss any possibility of avoiding the terrible calamity which at present threatens the whole world. I therefore make a personal appeal to you to remove the misapprehension which I feel must have occurred, and to leave still open grounds for negotiation and possible peace. If you think I can in any way contribute to that all important purpose, I will do everything in my power to assist in reopening the interrupted conversation between the Powers concerned. I feel confident that you are as anxious as I am that all that is possible should be done to secure the peace of the world."

The Tsar's Reply to King George.

Reply of his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Russia to his Majesty King George, 1st August, 1914:

"I would gladly have accepted your proposals had not the German Ambassador this afternoon presented a note to my Government declaring war. Ever since presentation of the ultimatum at Belgrade Russia has devoted all her efforts to finding some pacific solution of the question raised by Austria's action. The object of that action was to crush Servia and make her a vassal of Austria. The effect of this would have been to upset the balance of power in the Balkans which is of such vital interest to my Empire. Every proposal, including that of your Government, was rejected by Germany and Austria, and it was only when the favourable moment for bringing pressure to bear on Austria had passed that Germany showed any disposition to mediate. Even then she did not put forward any precise proposal.

"Austria's declaration of war on Servia forced me to order a partial mobilisation, though in view of the threatening situation, my military advisers strongly advised a general mobilisation owing to the quickness with which Germany can mobilise in comparison with Russia. I was eventually compelled to take this course in consequence of the complete Austrian mobilisation, of the bombardment of Belgrade, of the concentration of Austrian troops in Galicia, and of secret military preparations being made in Germany. That I was justified in doing so is proved by Germany's sudden declaration of war, which was quite unexpected by me, as I had given most categorical assurances to the Emperor William that my troops would not move so long as the mediation negotiations continued.

"In this solemn hour I wish to assure you once more that I have done all in my power to avert war. Now that it has been forced on me I trust your country will not fail to support France and Russia. God bless and protect you."

The Kaiser and the Tsar.

The Kaiser to the Tsar, *July* 28:

"I have learnt with the greatest concern of the impression which Austria-Hungary's action against Servia has made in your empire. The unscrupulous agitation which had been fostered in Servia for years has led to the detestable crime of which the Archduke Ferdinand was the victim. The spirit in which the Servians murdered their own King and Queen is still alive in that country. You will no doubt agree with me that we too, you and I, as well as all Sovereigns, have a common interest in insisting that all those who are morally responsible for the horrible crime should receive the punishment they deserve.

"On the other hand, I by no means ignore the difficulty which you and your Government meet in resisting the pressure of public opinion. Remembering the strong ties of cordial friendship which have for so long united us I am using all my influence to induce Austria-Hungary to seek a frank and satisfactory understanding with Russia. I confidently hope that you will support my efforts to remove all the difficulties that may yet arise.

"Your very sincere and devoted friend and cousin, William."

To this the Tsar replied on July 29:

"I am glad that you are back in Germany at this grave moment. I urgently ask you to assist me. A mean war has been declared upon a weak country. The indignation which I share to the full, is in Russia enormous.

I can foresee that I shall soon be unable to resist the pressure which is being brought upon me, and shall be compelled to take measures which will lead to war. In order to avert a calamity such as a European war would be, I ask you in the name of our old friendship to do everything possible to prevent your ally from proceeding too far.—(Signed) Nicholas."

On July 29 the Kaiser again telegraphed:

"'I have received your telegram, and share your desire for the maintenance of peace. At the same time, as I told you in my first telegram, I cannot regard Austria-Hungary's action as a "mean" war. Austria-Hungary

knows from experience that Servia's promises, so long as they remain only on paper, cannot altogether be relied upon. In my view, Austria-Hungary's action ought to be considered as an attempt to obtain a full guarantee that Servia's promises would also be translated into action. In this view I am confirmed by the declaration of the Austrian Cabinet that Austria-Hungary is seeking no territorial conquest at the expense of Servia. I therefore think that it is perfectly possible for Russia to maintain the attitude of a spectator in face of the Austro-Servian war without dragging Europe into the most terrible war she has ever experienced.

"'I believe that a direct understanding between your Government and Vienna is possible and desirable—an understanding which, as I have already telegraphed you, my Government is trying to encourage with all the means at its disposal.

"'Naturally, military measures on the part of Russia which Austria-Hungary could regard as a menace would precipitate the disaster which we had the wish to avoid, and would also undermine my position as an intermediary, which I, in reply to your appeal to my friendship and assistance, have readily assumed.—

(Signed) William.'"

FROM TSAR TO KAISER.

"I thank thee from my heart for thy mediation, which leaves a gleam of hope. . . . It is technically impossible to discontinue our military operations. . . So long as the negotiations with Austria regarding Servia continue my troops will not undertake any provocative action. I give thee my word upon it. I trust with all my strength in God's grace, and I hope for the success of thy mediation.—Thy most devoted Nicholas.

FROM KAISER TO TSAR.

"'My efforts to maintain the peace of the world have reached their limit. It will not be I who am responsible for the calamity which threatens the whole civilised world. Even at this moment it lies in thy power to avert it. Nobody threatens the honour and power of Russia which could well have waited for the result of my mediation. The friendship which I inherited from my grandfather on his death bed for thee and thy kingdom has always been holy to me. I have remained true to Russia. The peace of Europe can still be maintained by thee if Russia decides to cease her military measures which threaten Germany and Austria-Hungary.'"

Sir Edward Grey to Sir E. Goschen.

The King of the Belgians has made an appeal to his Majesty the King for diplomatic intervention on behalf of Belgium.

His Majesty's Government are also informed that the German Government has delivered to the Belgian Government a Note proposing friendly neutrality, entailing free passage through Belgian territory and promising to maintain the independence and integrity of the Kingdom and its possessions at the conclusion of peace, threatening in case of refusal to treat Belgium as an enemy. An answer was requested within twelve hours.

We also understand that Belgium has categorically refused this as a flagrant violation of the law of nations.

His Majesty's Government are bound to protest against this violation of a Treaty to which Germany is a party in common with themselves, and must request an assurance that the demand made upon Belgium may not be proceeded with and that her neutrality will be respected by Germany.

You should ask for immediate reply.

Sir F. Goschen to Sir Edward Grey.

The German Minister has this morning addressed a Note to the Belgian Minister for Foreign Affairs, stating that as the Belgian Government have declined the well-intentioned proposals submitted to them by the Imperial Government, the latter will, deeply to their regret, be compelled to carry out if necessary by force of arms, the measures considered indispensable in view of the French menace.

The German Foreign Secretary to the German Ambassador in London.

Please dispel any mistrust that may subsist on the part of the British Government with regard to our intentions by repeating most positively formal assurance that even in the case of armed conflict with Belgium, Germany will under no pretence whatever annex Belgic territory. The sincerity of this declaration is borne out by the fact that we have solemnly pledged our word to Holland strictly to respect her neutrality. It is obvious that we could not possibly annex Belgic territory without making at the same time territorial acquisitions at expense of Holland. Please impress upon Sir Edward Grey that the German Army could not be exposed to French attack across Belgium, which was planned according to absolutely unimpeachable information. Germany has had consequently to disregard Belgic neutrality, it being for her a question of life and death to prevent French advance.

SIR EDWARD GREY TO SIR F. VILLIERS.

Sir Edward Grey to Sir F. Villiers. (British Minister at Brussels.) August 4.

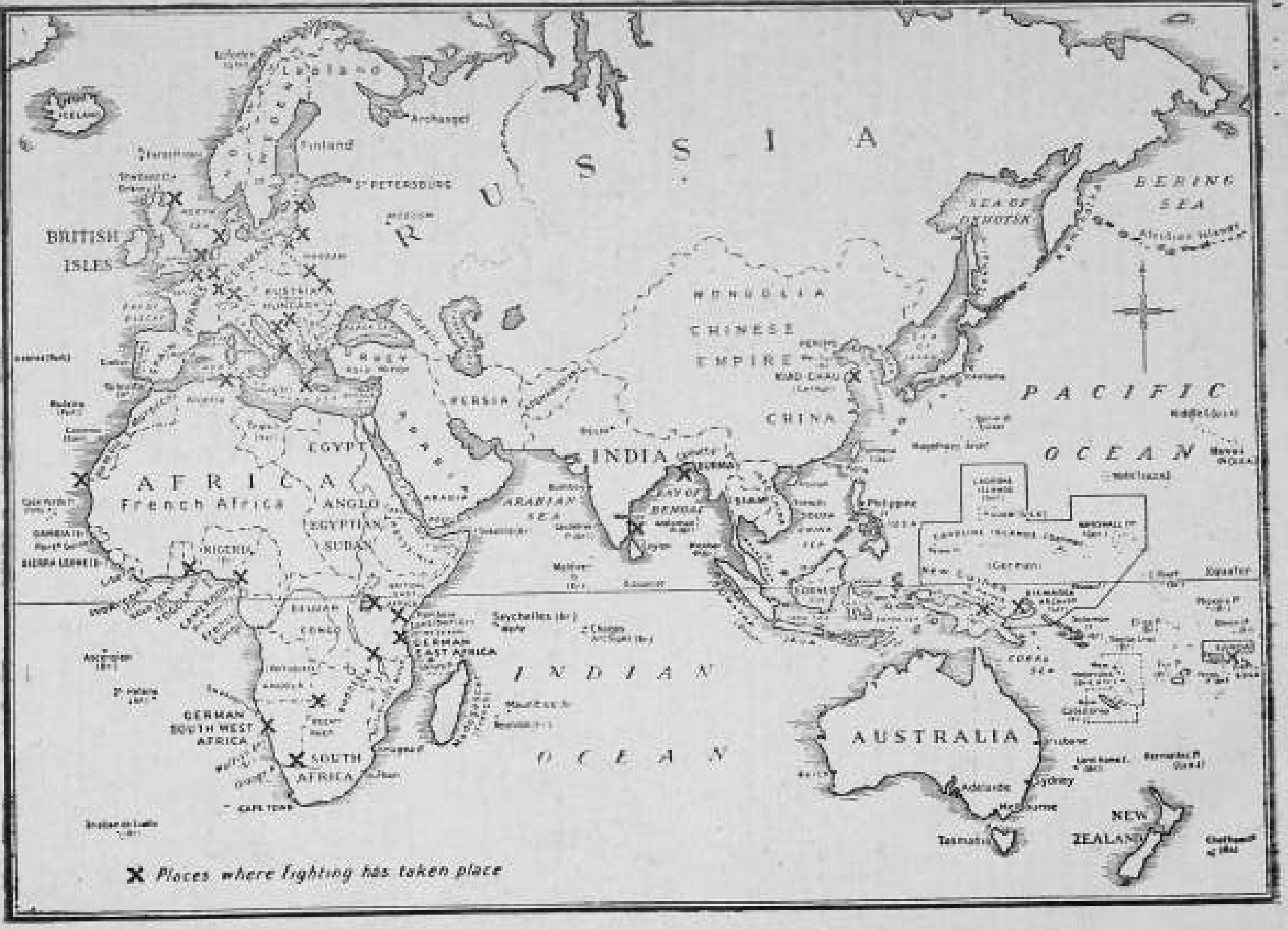
You should inform Belgian Government that if pressure is applied to them by Germany to induce them to depart from neutrality, His Majesty's Government expect that they will resist by any means in their power, and that His Majesty's Government will support them in offering such resistance, and that His Majesty's Government in this event are prepared to join Russia and France, if desired, in offering to the Belgian Government at once common action for the purpose of resisting use of force by Germany against them, and a guarantee to maintain their independence and integrity in future years.

☞ A White Paper containing a Despatch from Sir Maurice de Bunsen, British Ambassador in Vienna prior to the war, with reference to the rupture with Austria shows that up to the 1st August conversation between St. Petersburg and Vienna were proceeding in a most friendly manner, and Austria even assented to mediation on the points of her ultimatum incompatible with Servia's independence. It was at this point that Germany intervened with her ultimatums to St. Petersburg and Paris, cutting short the prospects of peace.

War Declared.

The following statement was issued from the Foreign Office at 12-15 A.M., on the 5th August.

Owing to the summary rejection by the German Government of the request made by His Majesty's Government for assurances that the neutrality of Belgium will be respected, His Majesty's Ambassador at Berlin has received his passports and His Majesty's Government have declared to the German Government that a state of war exists between Great Britain and Germany as from 11 P.M., on the 4th August.



THE BRITISH EMPIRE AT WAR.

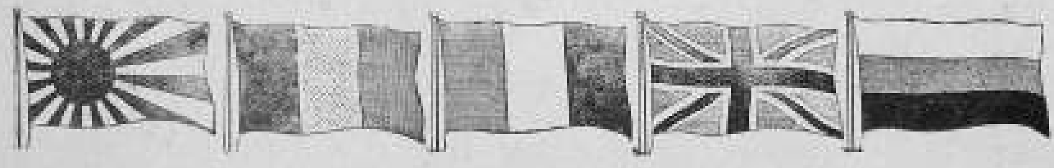
From "The Times," London.

THE SEVEN RULERS AT WAR.

KING GEORGE. M. POINCARE. THE TSAR. KAISER. FRANCIS JOSEPH. KING ALBERT. THE MIKADO.

A CAPITAL POSTER.

SWOLLEN-HEADED WILLIAM.



FLAGS OF THE FIVE POWERS.

THE MINISTERS OF THE POWERS

MR. ASQUITH.

BORN on September 12th, 1852 at Morley in Yorkshire, Mr. Asquith has just closed his 62nd year of age. He is the second son of Joseph Dixon Asquith of the Croft House, Morley, and Emily Willans of Huddersfield. His father died when young. Asquith was six years old and he was left to the care and bringing up of his mother, a lady of Puritan principles, lofty character and sympathetic intellect. Before entering the City of London School, the home influences which had at first shaped his character were supplemented by the atmosphere of the Moravian School at Fulneck in Leeds.

He was a brilliant pupil of the City of London School. From school he entered Oxford College, Balliol, and became subject to the powerful sway of the Master of Balliol, Jowett. Devoted to his studies, solitary in his habits and severely reserved with his fellow students, he avoided the small dissipations of a college career and achieved a great reputation as one of the most remarkable students of his year. The atmosphere of scepticism in Balliol College had a very humanising effect on Asquith, though he never broke away from the simple, stern creed of his early years. By heredity Mr. Asquith was a Radical and a Non-Conformist, and being both ambitious and poor, with no outside support to give him a helping hand, the law was the best avenue to success. The opinion has been hazarded that a lawyer seldom makes a good statesman, but in Mr. Asquith's case the dictum has been falsified. Scholar, Fellow, Craven University Scholar and 1st Class Lit. Hum. 1874, Mr. Asquith was called to the Bar in Lincoln's Inn in 1876 and addressed himself with characteristic thoroughness to the Common Law Bar. A successful debut at the Bar requires forensic ease of manner and persuasive eloquence, and Mr. Asquith ever placed more reliance on the matter of an argument than in the manner of delivering it. It has been said of him that he would have made a great Judge, but, as his life has shown, he has made a greater politician, although even in politics he has never displayed the virtue of pliancy.

Mr. Asquith married early in life Miss Helen Melland of Manchester, and, burdened with a wife and increasing family, Mr. Asquith suffered for some time the anxieties and drawbacks inseparable from such responsibilities. Want of legal work at the start afforded him leisure sufficient to immerse himself in the study of public affairs and political problems. It was a seed-time from which he has gathered an abundant harvest. He entered Parliament as Member for East Fife, as Liberal Unionist, and supported Mr. Gladstone and Home Rule. His first noticeable legal success was his defence of Mr. Cunningham Graham and Mr. John Burns who were prosecuted for attempting to vindicate the right of public meeting in Trafalgar Square. Mr. Asquith failed in carrying his point, but it brought him prominently before the Liberals both in and outside Parliament.

This was associated with the great Parnell trial. For some time previous to this *cause celebre*, Mr. Asquith had acted as junior to Sir Charles Russell, who subsequently became Lord Chief Justice of England. And the mere fact of this position was a distinction, and when Sir Charles Russell was retained as counsel of Parnell, Mr. Asquith did yeoman service as Sir Charles' junior and made himself thoroughly acquainted with all the intricacies of that famous case. When the trial was in progress, Mr. Asquith's chief examined Mr. Soames, a *Times* witness in the Parnell case, and did not succeed in eliciting any information of importance. The next witness was Mr. Macdonald who has become famous as the "Simple Simon" of the *Times*, and at the very last moment Sir Charles Russell suddenly called on his junior, against the latter's strong protest, to cross-examine Macdonald. Not only was Mr. Asquith totally unprepared for the task, but Macdonald, a shrewd and shifty Scotchman, bore the reputation of being equal to any cross-examiner living. Mr. Asquith despaired of doing anything. As it happened, however, Mr. Asquith put a question to the witness which was answered in an unexpectedly silly way. Quick to seize an opportunity, Mr.

Asquith pressed his questions with ability and skill and Macdonald collapsed in a manner that at once made Mr. Asquith's reputation and weakened the case of the *Times*. Mr. Asquith followed this success up with his brilliant reply to Sir Richard Webster in Parliament, when Sir Richard delivered his famous speech on the Forged Letters. With this second success Mr. Asquith's reputation was made, and when in 1892 Mr. Gladstone formed his Cabinet, Mr. Asquith was offered, and accepted, the responsible office of Home Secretary. On leaving office Mr. Asquith returned to the Bar and after a considerable period of slackened activity Mr. Chamberlain's campaign against Free Trade offered him another chance of distinguishing himself. More than quite familiar with the arguments, pro and con, of the controversy in his student days, Mr. Asquith did much to weaken the force of Mr. Chamberlain's attack. His reward came when his right to be the colleague and successor of Mr. Henry Campbell-Bannerman was widely acknowledged. On the resignation of Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman in 1908, Mr. Asquith became Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury. He returned to power in January 1910 and again in December of that year.

There is no necessity, in a brief record of Mr. Asquith's activities in Parliamentary life, to discuss in detail the various administrative measures of his tenure of office. They are writ large in the history of the last six years. His supreme success in the political arena came while the House of Lords unmade the Budget which, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Asquith was responsible for. The Commons then joined issue with the Lords and the hour produced the man. Until this time Mr. Asquith had not attained the full stature of his growth. "His will had," says a writer who has closely studied the career of Mr. Asquith, "been hardened in the long battle of ambition, but it had never been summoned to cope with a capital crisis on the State. The fire from heaven had never fallen on him. His strength was flameless, but the usurpation of the Lords turned this cold intellect into a blazing instrument of vengeance. It dowered him with passion. Never before had this man felt in him the burning force which makes demi-gods of statesmen and a burning force of liberty. His soul was suddenly fused with his intellect and he consecrated himself to a sole and single aim—the salvation of representative institutions." His resolution, now historical in its eloquent brevity declaring that the House of Lords had been guilty of a "breach of the Constitution and a usurpation of the rights of the Commons," will be memorable for all time.

A contributor to the *Daily Mail* not long ago gave the following pen-portrait of Mr. Asquith.

"Mr. Asquith," he says, "is not an imposing figure except in action. His clothes never seem to fit him thoroughly—his trousers always appear rather baggy, his inevitable morning coat seems too small, and his waistcoat gives one the impression of being worn because it is comfortable. To a stranger his clothes are in keeping with the man as he leans back indifferently on the front bench. They indicate him as a member not anxious to cut a distinguished figure, as one who is quite content to be among the rank and file of a large Parliamentary party. But that impression is dissipated when Mr. Asquith rises to his feet. Then the personality of the man shines forth, and the most casual eye can see what makes him a power in the House of Commons. From his first dozen words it is apparent that though one may dislike him, it will be impossible to ignore him. His manner varies with the occasion. It is generally ruthless. He will brush political friends aside with the same rough verbal gesture that he uses to foes. He does not go out of his way to be conciliatory."

The late Mr. Stead summed up Mr. Asquith's character as "sombrely virile". In argument he is level-headed, alert, logical and unimpassioned. His vigorous intellect is able to grapple with the most subtle problems and complex intricacies of a given case and to reduce it to the simplest language and most vivid expression. He is never flamboyant, and is never, to quote a well-known descriptive touch, "intoxicated with the exuberance of his own verbosity." His voice is musical and resonant. Like the passionless irresistible strength of a glacier, Mr. Asquith's speeches carry conviction to his most determined opponents who unable to worst him in logical deduction and exposition, resort, as has happened more than once, to abuse and vilification. Not that there are not those who look upon Mr. Asquith very differently. But time will give the true perspective and there is little doubt that, in the Right Honourable Herbert Henry Asquith, England has a statesman of whom the country may well be proud and who will be counted amongst the greatest statesmen and Prime Ministers of a country which has produced the most eminent in history.

SIR EDWARD GREY.

THE Right Hon. Sir Edward Grey, *Bart.* M.P., K.G., P.C., D.L., D.C.L., Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs since 1905, is the son of Captain George Henry Grey, his mother being the daughter of Lieut.-Col. Pearson. He was educated at Winchester and Balliol College, Oxford. He is the grandson of Sir George Grey, *Bart.*, who was a colleague of Mr. Gladstone for many years. Sir Edward entered Parliament as Minister for Berwick-on-Tweed, which constituency he has represented ever since he became Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs; with the Earl of Rosebery as his Chief in 1892–5, Sir Edward Grey was Chairman of the Commission which went out to the West Indies in 1897 to report upon the condition and prospects of the Islands. In December 1905 he was appointed Foreign Secretary in Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's administration—a post for which his previous duties as Under-Secretary well qualified him. He has retained it since. Sir Edward Grey belongs to one of the most ancient and most historic governing families of the influential Squirearchy class who for centuries have been the hereditary rulers and law-makers of England. He is prouder of his simple baronetcy than any Duke or Earl in the country. He is the very embodiment of his class, clearly defined in its characteristics, enduring in its traits, proud of its achievements, and tinged with its prejudices, but honourable in its intuitions. There is nothing egotistical or aggressive in Sir Edward Grey's methods or manner, and his reserve and quiet are not the result of class pride *per se*. His aloofness—for he never enters the smoke-room to chat with the rank-and-file and very rarely dines in the house—is due to disposition, and were it not that he is interpellated daily by inquisitive members he would, scarcely be able to say who it was that interrogated him and the interpellating members would probably, not be aware of the personality of the Foreign Minister. Shy and nervous, he is unfit for mixing socially with the free-and-easy members of the House. He thaws only in the society of his intimate friends. His application to work is extraordinary, for so young a man—he is just 52 years old—his working day is said to be nothing less than 15 hours in the 24. To dawdle in the House, inquisitive about nothing in particular, to listen absent-mindedly to speeches which do not interest him and to fritter away odd movements anyhow is not conceivable of Sir Edward. Mr. A. G. Gardiner, who knows him well, says of Sir Edward Grey in *Everyman*: "Was it not Danton who said it was better to keep sheep upon a hill-side than meddle with the government of men? And Danton had the passion for affairs and the joy of battle. Sir Edward Grey has neither. He always gives the impression of being in the conflict unwillingly. He is not a recluse, but no one in public life seems quite so remote from it. He comes to the House more rarely than any Minister, and like the Northern Farmer, he says, "what he owt'a said and cooms away." He is a stranger to society and his friendships are few though firm. One feels that his thoughts are not here but far away by a northern trout stream, which, as he once said, "runs neither too fast, nor, which is a worse fault, too slow," and where he may pursue that which seems to engage his mind. It is a reverie undisturbed by ambition, or any interest in the everyday cut-and-thrust of politics, stimulated, probably by a dip into Wordsworth or Walton or White's "Selborne". He shares Mr. Hardcastle's love of old friends, old books and old ways, and conveys that sense of the permanence of things which is so hard to feel amidst the hurry and haste, the levity and ambition, of the modern world. Parliament has many more subtle minds, many swifter minds, many more eloquent tongues; but it contains no one who gives to it in the same degree the spirit of chivalrous purpose, who is so far removed from the petty artifices of politics or who carries into public life a nobler tradition from the past."

Sir Edward is comparatively a poor man. He is possessed of no exceptional personal gifts or accomplishments. As a follower of Isaac Walton he is an expert fisherman and successful with the rod. He has a great partiality for tennis and a decided leaning to the study of Natural History. He cannot be considered an expert in public affairs and he is absolutely barren of that magnetic force and that persuasive passion which far less gifted men possess, and which carry their fellows along with them in an over-mastering tide. He is as passionless as his Chief, Mr. Asquith, which is saying a good deal. Nevertheless there is a latent force, a hidden art, in his language which is thoroughly convincing. The House listens and obeys. As a speaker his strange power and immense influence are striking. He utters no

"mots," he is incapable of epigram, and no thrilling or burning sentence or phrase adorns his discourse. Mr. T. P. O'Connor says: "I would compare Sir Edward Grey's speech to the speech of the ordinary and above all the ornate orators, as I would the prose of Addison or Goldsmith to the prose of Carlyle or Macaulay. The perfect naturalness, the inevitableness, and the simplicity of the language, are part of the power, as the real secret of the immense impressiveness." No one thinks of discussing the speaker, attention is riveted on the speech, and that is so straight formed, so convincing, so flawless, that it is no wonder that it is final. For instance, his last great speech on the necessity of England's action in the present war with Germany called for no additional remark, amplification or criticism. It was the last word on the subject. Notwithstanding this apparent mastery over himself, and his subject, the keen observer sees that he is always nervous before he begins to address the House, perhaps, the most formidable assembly in the world. "For one thing", says a critic, "his hands are never quiet. At one moment they are grasping the lapels of his coat, then they rush down to his trousers' pockets, then one of them is left in one of his trousers' pockets, while the other seeks his watch chain, and so they go on, eloquent though mute, witnesses of all the internal emotion that is hidden underneath the frigid face, the cold even voice and the composed manner."

For the rest, his capacity for any office is tacitly admitted and his appointment as War Minister, or Colonial Secretary, or even Prime Minister, would cause no astonishment. Apparently, he has no marked ambition and no special goal of success to achieve. An admirer says of him: "He neither strives nor pushes nor pursues, yet he wins the goal; he captures, he arrives."

"There is a race of men who master life
Their victory being inversely as their strife:"
Who capture by refraining from pursuit;
Shake not the bough, yet load their hands with [fruit."

Sir Edward Grey is one of them.

BETHMANN HOLLWEG.

It is often said that German diplomacy is a peculiarly noxious craft with a great deal of the art of the tale-bearer and the spy. It refuses to be frank, open and straightforward and shuns the light of publicity. It rejoices in underhand dealings and subterfuges and is scarcely fit for daylight. Such opinions are very current and no doubt true to a certain extent. But whatever it might be in the days of Bismarck and his kin, it would be folly to charge Herr Von Bethmann Hollweg with any such diatribes. He is by nature a student and a thinker. He has the temperament of the artist, quick but perverse. He does not seek to hide; he knows the wrong and does it. He seems to stifle the pangs of his conscience which dictates a policy which his German law of necessity suddenly overrules. He feels the crime of violating the neutrality of a weak State, but finds arguments in the peculiarly Prussian notion that "necessity knows no law." Such is his vindication of the wanton German invasion of Belgium. For else a consummate German diplomatist of the school of Bismarck would never have betrayed a phrase like "the scrap of paper" touching the sanctity of international law, which the weakness of the German Imperial Chancellor has given currency to. One wonders if his high-sounding words of warning were meant to be sincere or a cynical mockery: "When England joined with Russia and Japan against Germany, she with a blindness unique in the history of the world betrayed civilisation and handed over to the German sword the care of freedom for European peoples and States."

Theobald Von Bethmann-Hollweg, who by nature and aptitude is a born academician and philosopher, inherits to-day by a sudden upheaval of destiny the "blood and iron" tradition of Bismarck. In fact his past career does not suggest any vein of Bismarckian militarism in his composition. Nor does his presence, tall, gaunt, quiet, yet compelling, reveal any symptom of steel and cold blood. But it is a notorious fact that in Germany, since the advent of Kaiser Wilhelm, all foreign policy, including the office of the Imperial Chancellor, has become the shadow of the Emperor, the one dominating personality in the Empire. In a previous regime Bismarck was all in all; Prince Von Bulow was second best in the Empire But Kaiser Wilhelm would tolerate no rival and he quietly choses for his highest appointive office

THE RT. HON. MR. ASQUITH
The British Prime Minister.

"If in a crisis like this we run away from the obligations of honour and interest as regards Belgium, I doubt whether whatever material force we might have at the end, it would be of very much value in face of the respect we should have lost."—*In the House of Commons, 3rd August 1914.*

THE RT. HON. SIR EDWARD GREY,
The British Secretary for Foreign Affairs.

THEOBALD VON BETHMANN-HOLLWEG
The German Imperial Chancellor,

HERR GOTTLIEB VON JAGO
The German Foreign Secretary,

M. SERGE SAZONOFF
The Russian Foreign Minister

H. E. NICOLAS PACHITCH
The Servian Prime Minister.

COUNT LEOPOLD BERCHTOLD
The Austrian Foreign Minister.

RENE VIVIANI
The French Prime Minister.

in the State a Chancellor who would not dispute his imperial wisdom. Accordingly, in 1909, Von Bethmann Hollweg became the German Imperial Chancellor.

Von Bethmann has none of the arresting self-assertion of his predecessors. Modest and retiring by nature, there is nothing of the flamboyant in his make-up. But he is, above all, thoroughly sincere and honest. He is what is known as a safe and sane politician, and the tricks and traits of the professional politician and diplomat are beneath him. One cannot picture him in the rôle of a Bismarck dictating to Europe, nor the theatrical bombast of a Prince Von Bulow. Hollweg is a philosopher-Chancellor—loyal, honest and conservative. He cannot electrify the country nor the Parliament, and has never been brilliant. His official career has lain far remote from the paths of diplomacy and foreign affairs. His have been the prosaic problems of local government and home administration—fields in which he is almost without a peer among his countrymen. Distinguished alike for zeal, industry and capacity, always loyal and patriotic, he has yet failed to dominate in the kingdom, and he has handed over the prerogatives of his office to the Kaiser, the consequences of which history will not acquit the philosopher-Chanceller.

Hollweg became the favourite of the Kaiser while yet a student at the University of Bonn, where he was his classmate. The Kaiser's friendship for, and confidence in, his Chancellor thus dates back to those early days. But it must not be supposed that Hollweg rose to eminence by the accident of the Kaiser's favouritism. After the usual course, he studied law at Gottingen, Strassburg and Berlin, between 1875 and 1879. He then practised law for six years and became a Judge at Potsdam. He then passed through successive grades of German officialdom, each step in his career being marked with distinguished administrative ability. The Imperial Chancellorship is thus the crown of an arduous and creditable career.

Whatever may be his merits, he has long chosen to be the shadow of the Kaiser, and his foreign policy has been, as we see, dictated by the Kaiser's whim. One feels that the Chancellor's sinking of his independent personality has resulted in the greatest tragedy that has ever befallen Europe.

HERR VON JAGO.

Herr Gottlieb Von Jago, the German Foreign Secretary, has been in the Diplomatic Service seventeen years, of which four years were spent as Ambassador in Rome from which he was summoned to Berlin to join the Ministry. The German Foreign Secretaryship is perhaps the least coveted portfolio in the whole Imperial Government. It offers few chances of distinction and little independence of action. Yet it is incessantly in the fierce limelight of carping criticism. As one who has known the course of German politics intimately says: "It has been the graveyard of more than one reputation."

Besides the wanton intrusion of the Imperial Kaiser, there is again the demand made on the Foreign Secretary for gratifying the gnawing ambition of Germany for "a place in the sun". In Congo, in Africa, in Asia Minor, in Persia what new possessions are added to the Empire by the skill of the Foreign Secretary? Such is the popular cry in recent years. But the Foreign Minister has likewise to keep peace with the rest of the world. It is a Herculean task. How has this bachelor of fifty, with a diplomatic career at Hamburg, Munich, The Hague, Luxumberg and Rome conducted himself under these trying circumstances?

Von Jago represented Germany in Italy at a delicate period. Two of the partners of the Triple Alliance had fallen out. Austria-Hungary and Italy were on cat-and-dog terms. The Triple Alliance was expiring in a couple of years. German diplomacy, however, made up the differences and brought about a tacit conciliation and even prolonged the Alliance for another term of years. In this Von Jago's share cannot be over-estimated.

There was again another call for consummate tact and diplomatic skill when Italy and Turkey were at war. German sentiment was undoubtedly on the side of the Turks. The Italians were not blind to the inclination of the enemy, nor could they bring themselves to spare the trial of German susceptibilities. Now, in such a time Jago kept his country's diplomatic prestige high, and not all the strained relations could be symptomatic of want of tact on the part of Von Jago.

But Von Jago's sphere of usefulness is world-wide. Germany in recent times has shown no marked superiority in statesmanship, and Von Jago, slight, attenuated, nervous and furtive, has proved himself no exception to the prevalent mediocrity. Himself a "paragon of conciliation"

he has had little force of individuality to affect the superior wisdom of the War Lord. At one time he described the growing friendship with England as a "delicate flower". The flower has faded, crushed under the heels of unscrupulous breach of faith. Von Jago has not stemmed the tide of war. Day by day Germany has been sending ultimatums to every Power under the sun till the world is arrayed against her. Germany is paying the penalty of her inordinate ambition and conceit. Diplomacy has not saved Germany. It will be little short of wonder if she could survive the ruin that German diplomacy has wrought for the Fatherland. Von Jago is not altogether responsible. But such is the irony of things that he can scarcely escape blame.

Count Leopold Berchtold.

It is unfortunate that Austria should have been hurled into this great war at the time when her political destiny is in the hands of such an intellectual and courageous diplomat as Count Leopold Berchtold. He is a Hungarian by birth and is credited with having been in sympathy with the late Archduke's policy of conciliating the Slav element in the Austrian Empire. The war that is now raging is the result of his efforts to discipline Servia. A trained diplomatist, a disciple and protege of D'Aehrenthal, the Count rose to eminence by the merit of his ambassadorial efficiency. During the time he was at Petrograd, 1906-11, he proved true to his master D'Aehrenthal and endeavoured to maintain the friendliest relations with the Government of the Great Tsar. Count Berchtold is a diplomat to the finger tip, but has had no military training. Berchtold impressed upon the authorities alike in Vienna and St. Petersburg by his intellect and tact. He entered the Diplomatic Service at the age of twenty and was attached successively to the Paris, London and St. Petersburg Embassies, and when, in 1911, he succeeded Count Von Aehrenthal as chief of the Vienna Foreign Office, his appointment was hailed in Petrograd as the dawn of a particularly welcome era of peace and friendliness. A personal friend of the Russian Minister M. Sazonoff, he was yet too weak for the irresistible impulse of things. And to-day, consciously or unconsciously, Count Leopold has dragged Austria into a world-conflict from which it would be a miracle if she could emerge in safety. The irony of things proved, however, too strong for the slim, tall, aristocrat of the Austrian Court.

NICOLAS PACHITCH.

His Excellency Nicolas Pachitch, the Prime Minister of Servia, has, for all practical purposes, been the soul of the liberal party in the little kingdom. He is the grand old man of Servia, about sixty-five years of age, quiet, taciturn and reserved, and for forty years has shown great diplomatic ability by shaping a policy which has enabled him to work with more or less marked success with two rival royal dynasties.

During the crisis of the recent Balkan war it was primarily the personality of Pachitch that secured for Servia the sympathy and recognition of the European Powers. Servia is racially associated with Russia, and in her policy and aspiration she has adopted British institutions. In fact the weal or woe of the Servian kingdom is equally felt in Russia. But England has not only helped Servia to obtain her independence, but has always been the model upon which her liberal and democratic institutions have been created and developed. Writing in the *Review of Reviews* some years ago, the Prime Minister declared :—

> While we are anxious to preserve the most friendly relations with all other nations, near or far, we cannot depart from the principle that national needs must always dominate the policy of a Liberal nation anxious to develop normally. International concessions, and even friendships, must never be allowed to destroy the possibility of accomplishing the national destiny. The past has shown us that independence of trade and economic liberty are necessary for Servia's development, and even for her existence. Since the moment, some years ago, that our economic independence was partially secured, the progress of the country has been so marked as to leave no doubt possible in our minds that Servia must have complete economic independence and an outlet to the sea which shall be under no control, save her own, after the sacrifices which she has made and which she may still be called upon to make.

Now it is the obvious truth that Servia's desires are based on no exaggerated ideas of possible aggrandisement. Servian arms have conquered far more territory than she ever intends to retain, but Servian policy has established a minimum of territorial expansion which does no more than cover her co-nationals and her national necessities.

> Servia's minimum requisite to her national development is economic independence, save, possibly, in so far as regards a Customs union with her allies and a free and adequate passage to the Adriatic Sea on the Adriatic coast. It is essential that Servia should possess about 50 kilometres from Alessio to Durazzo. This coastline would be joined to what was formerly Old Servia approximately by the territory between a line from Durazzo to Ochrida Lake in the south, and one from Alessio to Djakova in the north.

This, of course, includes Albania. Historically as well as ethnologically Servia's claims to Albania are not altogether invalid. Albania belonged to Servia formerly until conquered by the Turks. In fact Servian territory extended much further south. Nor can Servian leanings in Albania be forgotten, and the Albanian anarchy, so perpetual and so pitiable, finds in Servia a sympathetic deliverer. More than half the Albanian inhabitants are Christians, including the Miraditas. The Albanians possess many purely Servian customs and are essentially of Servian origin. Besides, under Servian rule they are promised the fullest liberty—schools in their own language, religious freedom and security of life and property, to a degree they have never yet enjoyed.

But Servia's desire for an adequate sea-coast is at the root of her policy, and with the sea by her side she hopes to be in closer contact with England. The Prime Minister's aspiration for English association seems likely to be realised, considering the response which England has now given in company with Russia to the menace of the integrity of Servia.

Servia rejoices that the period of lack of direct contact with England and English institutions will now come to an end. From Servia's new and growing ports steamers will go to the established ports of England, weaving closer every day the web of friendship and mutual advantage between the two peoples. This point of contact with England, secured by England's command of the seas, realises for Servia one of her deepest and most lasting desires, which will enable her to develop freely and liberally, encouraged and stimulated by the freedom and justice of England.

M. SAZONOFF.

M. Serge Sazonoff, the Russian Foreign Minister, succeeded M. Izvolsky in 1910. M. Sazonoff is essentially a peace Minister and holds the same position among European diplomatists as our own Sir Edward Grey. He served his diplomatic career at the Russian Embassies in London, Paris and Rome. His visit to England and his conversations with the King at Balmoral, in September, 1912, mark an epoch in European affairs. He is very popular with the Russian people and is implicitly trusted by the Tsar. As a result of his conduct of Russian diplomacy during the Balkan war, he returned the personal thanks of the Tsar in the form of an imperial rescript. In Austria-Hungary and Germany he has been credited with playing a deep game and is considered "the cleverest diplomatist in Europe." Sazonoff has been called the pillar of the *Triple Entente*.

COUNT OKUMA.

Count Okuma is decidedly the foremost Japanese statesman since the death of Marquis Irubimi Ito who shared with the late Emperor the dignity of being considered the peacemaker of Modern Japan. A statesman of the highest rank, he has acted up to the traditions of the Ito era by taking the wise and decisive attitude in the present world-crisis in accordance with the spirit of the Anglo-Japanese Treaty in the drawing up of which he has had no small share. The Count is said to be the veriest personification of his country, echoing the thoughts and feelings, hopes and fears, of the Japanese people. Alike in his features and in his temperament, he is a typical Jap, and he represents to-day the brilliant gifts of his countrymen. With such a head at the helm of the Japanese Constitution, one may be sure, as to Japanese sentiments, which way the wind blows. It is clear that the whole Japanese nation is on the side of the British and are bent upon fulfilling the obligations so willingly undertaken by the terms of the Anglo Japanese Alliance.

Count Okuma, besides being the foremost living statesman in Japan, is also very well known throughout the civilised world. Born in February 1838, in Saga, in the Province of Hizen, he is a perfect Samurai of the Saga clan. Brought up by a wise and virtuous mother, who became a widow in his eighth year, he was early educated at the Kado-Kwan, a clan school where Chinese classics were then taught. Subsequently he began the study of Dutch, English and mathematics under various English tutors at Nagasaki. This training and association with Englishmen early imbued him with the spirit of British democracy. And his essentially Japanese spirit, coupled with the capacity for adaptation, soon made him the advocate of Constitutional government in Japan. Even so early as during the Restoration, he boldly stood up for the abolition of the feudal system and presented the British Constitution for a model and reorganisation. Later on, on the reorganisation of the Government under the late Mikado, he became Chief Assistant in the Department of Foreign Affairs and subsequently Secretary for the Interior and Finance, and President of the Japanese Commission at the Vienna Exhibition. For about ten years *i. e.*, 1873-81 he had charge of the Treasury first as Vice-Minister and then as Minister-in-Chief. At this time came a crisis. The Government rejected his memorial urging the introduction of representative government,

and he resigned his office. Finding it impossible to work from within, he formed the Progressive Party, the forerunner of the present National Party, and was for a long time President of that Body. In 1888, the year preceding the promulgation of the Constitution, he was appointed Foreign Minister in the Kuroda Cabinet, and he undertook the important task of revising old treaties concluded with the Powers before the Restoration, in order to regain the rights conceded by Japan. Some of his measures were taken objection to and caused not a little fury among the partisans. In the next Cabinet under Matsukata in 1896 he again joined the Ministry with the portfolio of the Foreign Office and Agriculture and Commerce. Shortly after, in June, 1898, he assumed the Premiership in the Okuma Itagaki Coalition Ministry, with the additional task of the management of foreign affairs. A few months later the alliance broke up and he resigned the leadership of the Party. And now again, in the reorganisation of the new Cabinet, he has been called to the Premiership which he has so successfully and creditably discharged.

But it is not as a statesman alone that he is known throughout his country. His interest in education is as keen and active as it has ever been in politics. Founder of the Waseda University, the largest under private management in the Empire, he is now its President. He is also the patron of the Women's University at Mejiro. Japan has to thank him for the net-work of schools all over the country started by his initiative. There is scarcely a town or a village without a Board school or technical school. Besides urging the Government to help to foster these institutions, his own benefactions have been not a little. His own schools have been planned and organised by himself, and he watches over their working with infinite care, always on the alert to improve them. His faith in the destiny of his race is unbounded, and, remaining an oriental in everything, nobody in Japan has done more to foster Western education than Count Okuma. Says a writer: "For the last thirty years indeed he has been trying heart and soul to do for the education of the Japanese what Yamagata has done for their military training and Ito for their political development; and he has succeeded."

One or two aspects of the Count's personality deserves mention. He has been called the Grand Old Man of Japan, and it is said that there are points of resemblance between him and Gladstone. Count Okuma's cosmopolitanism and liberal sympathies need little comment. Indians who have been in Japan have testified to his interest in Indian students. He has been the President of the Indian Association and has charmed our countrymen with many a magnificent oration. In fact he is the premier orator among a nation of orators. His speeches, says a writer, are perfect models of eloquence, no matter whether he is overwhelming his opponents with invectives or lavishing loving praise on his friends.

Such is the Prime Minister of this little oriental Empire which is already one of the Great Powers of the world. In acting up to the spirit and letter of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, he has shown the wisdom of an enlightened policy which is bound to produce the happiest results. Already the friendship of the two great Sea-Powers in the West and East have by combination routed the peril of hostile buccaneering in the eastern waters. By directing the attack on Kiachau, Japan has saved India from the peril of German raids. Count Okuma, acting in the best spirit of the Alliance, has diverted the course of German mischief and saved England the anxiety of an Eastern irruption. The Eastern seas are thus safe under the supreme power of the Japanese Fleet, and we owe it to the wisdom of the foremost Japanese statesman—Count Okuma.

RENE VIVIANI.

One happy feature of the present continental Cabinets is the combination of unusual literary and political talents in the Ministries. The divorce between politics and literature, a favourite cant of the nineties of the last century, has now been falsified. The English Cabinet is an academy of more than one literary luminary—Morley, Bryce, Birrel, Churchill with Mr. Balfour and Rosebery in the Opposition Bench. France has a tradition, the most inspiring in history of statesmen with marked distinction in letters. The present French Ministry is a continuation of that glorious tradition and we have two men in France who are masters in either—Poincare and Viviani. They would do equal credit in the Cabinet or in the Academy. M. Rene Viviani, the French Prime Minister, who was born in Algeria, owes his position in politics to his Labour sympathies, but under him all parties have united to repel the Germans.

The Belligerents' appeal to their subjects.

KING GEORGE'S MESSAGE TO HIS PEOPLE.

HIS Majesty King George issued the following appeal to his subjects both in the Dominions and in India:—

During the past few weeks the peoples of my whole Empire have moved with one mind and purpose to confront and overthrow an unparalleled assault upon the continuity of civilisation and the peace of mankind. The calamitous conflict is not of my seeking. My voice throughout has been cast on the side of peace.

My Ministers earnestly strove to allay the causes of strife and appease the differences with which my Empire was not concerned. Had I stood aside when, in defiance of the pledges to which my Kingdom was a party, the soil of Belgium was violated and her cities laid desolate, when the very life of the French nation was threatened with extinction, I should have sacrificed my honour and given to destruction the liberties of my Empire and of mankind.

MESSAGE TO THE ARMY.

H. M. the King Emperor has issued the following message to his troops, forming the expeditionary force:—

You are leaving home to fight for the safety and honour of my Empire. Belgium, the country we are pledged to defend, has been attacked, and France is about to be invaded by the same powerful foe.

I have implicit confidence in you, my soldiers. Duty is your watchword. I know your duty will be nobly done. I shall follow your every movement with the deepest interest and mark with eager satisfaction your daily progress. Indeed your welfare will never be absent from my thoughts. I pray to God to bless you and to guard you and to bring you home victorious.

THE TSAR'S MANIFESTO TO HIS PEOPLE.

The Tsar on Sunday, August 2, published this manifesto to his people:—

By the Grace of God, We, Nicholas II, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias, King of Poland, Grand Duke of Finland, etc., etc., to all our faithful subjects make known that Russia, related by faith and blood to the Slav peoples and faithful to her historical traditions, has never regarded their fates with indifference. The fraternal sentiments of the Russian people for the Slavs have been awakened with perfect unanimity and extraordinary force these last few days, when Austria-Hungary knowingly addressed to Servia claims unacceptable for an independent State.

Having paid no attention to the pacific and conciliatory reply of the Servian Government, and having rejected the benevolent intervention of Russia, Austria made haste to proceed to an armed attack and began to bombard Belgrade, an open place. Forced by the situation thus created to take the necessary measures of precaution, we ordered the Army and Navy to put on a war footing, while using every endeavour to obtain a peaceful solution of the *pour-parlers* begun, for the blood and property of our subjects are dear to us.

Amid friendly relations with Germany and her ally Austria, contrary to our hopes in our good neighbourly relations of long date and disregarding our assurances that the measures taken were in pursuance of no object hostile to her, Germany began to demand their immediate cessa-

tion. Having been rebuked in this demand, she suddenly declared war on Russia. To-day it is not only the protection of the country related to us and unjustly attacked that must be carried out, but we must also safeguard the honour, dignity, and integrity of Russia and her position among the Great Powers.

We believe unshakably that all our faithful subjects will rise with unanimity and devotion for the defence of Russian soil, that internal discord will be forgotten in this threatening hour, that the unity of the Tsar with his people will become still more close, and that Russia, rising like one man, will repulse the insolent attack of the enemy with profound faith in the justice of our work and with humble hope in omnipotent Providence. In prayer We call God's blessing on Holy Russia and her valiant troops.

(Sd.) "NICOLAI."

PRESIDENT POINCARE'S MESSAGE.

President Poincare addressed the following message to the Chambers on August 3:—

France has just been the object of a brutal and premeditated aggression which is an insolent challenge to the rights of humanity. Before a declaration of war had been addressed to us, even before the German Ambassador had demanded his passports, our territory has been violated. Not until last night did the German Empire give the true name to a situation which it had already created. For more than 40 years the French in their sincere love of peace had repressed in their breasts their desire for legitimate reparation. They had given to the world the example of a great nation which, definitely rehabilitated from its defeat by good will, patience, and industry, has used its renewed and rejuvenated energy only in the interests of progress and for the good of humanity. When the Austrian ultimatum opened a crisis which threatened the whole of Europe, France decided to follow and to recommend to all a policy of prudence, of wisdom, and of moderation. No one can impute to her any act, any gesture, any word which was not pacific and conciliatory. At the moment of the first encounters she has the right solemnly to make this claim for herself—that she made up to the last moment the strongest efforts to avert the war which has just broken out and of which the German Empire will have to take the crushing responsibility throughout history.

On the morrow of the day in which our allies and ourselves expressed publicly the hope of seeing the negotiations begun under the auspices of the Cabinet of London peacefully carried on, Germany suddenly declared war upon Russia. She has invaded the territory of Luxemburg, she has outrageously insulted the noble Belgian nation, our neighbour and our friend, and she has endeavoured treacherously to surprise us in the midst of diplomatic conversations. But France was watching as alert as pacific. She was prepared, and our enemies will meet on their path our brave covering troops who are at their posts, and under whose shelter the mobilization of all our national forces will be methodically completed. Our fine and brave Army, which France to-day accompanies with motherly thought, has arisen eager to defend the honour of the flag and the soil of the country.

The President of the Republic, who voices the unanimity of the country, expresses to our troops who will fight by land and sea the admiration and confidence of all Frenchmen. Closely united in one feeling, the nation will maintain the *sang froid* of the possession of which she has given daily proof since the beginning of the crisis. France will, as ever combine the most generous impulses and the most enthusiastic spirit with that self-command which betokens lasting energy and the best guarantee of victory. In the war upon which she is entering France will have on her side that right which no peoples, any more than individuals, may despise with

impunity—the eternal moral power. She will be heroically defended by all her sons, whose sacred union in face of the enemy nothing can destroy, and who today are fraternally bound together by the same indignation against the aggressor, and by the same patriotic faith. She is faithfully supported by Russia, her ally, she is upheld by the loyal friendship of England, and already from all parts of the civilized world come to her sympathy and good wishes, for she represents once more to-day before the world, Liberty, Justice, and Reason.

Haut les coeurs, et vive la France ! ! !

On the afternoon of August 4, speaking in the French Chamber M. Viviani, the Premier, in the course of his great speech said :—

"I desire on behalf of the Government and the public, to thank the British Government from this tribune for the cordiality of its words. The French Parliament will associate itself with this sentiment.

"Germany, has nothing to reproach us with. We have, to secure peace, to make sacrifices without precedent, bearing for half a century in silence the wound opened by her in our sides. All our moderations, all our sacrifices have been useless, our negotiations sterile, our efforts vain. While engaged in the work of conciliation, we and our allies were attacked by surprise....... What is being attacked is the independence, dignity and security which the Triple Entente has secured for the benefit of Europe. What is attacked are those liberties of Europe which France, her allies, and her friends are proud to defend. France, unjustly provoked, did not want war. She has done all in her power to avoid it. Since it is imposed upon her, she will defend herself. The spectacle which is offered to Europe to-day is that of a free and strong people fighting for its life and for the independence of Europe. We are without reproach, and we shall be without fear !"

BELGIAN KING'S APPEAL TO HIS PEOPLE.

King Albert of Belgium delivered the following speech to the Deputies :

Never since 1830 has a graver hour sounded for Belgium. The strength of our rights and the need of Europe for our autonomous existence make us still hope that the dreaded events will not occur. If it is necessary for us to resist an invasion of our soil, however, that duty will find us armed and ready to make the greatest sacrifices. Our young men have already come forward to defend the Fatherland in danger.

One duty alone is imposed upon us, namely, the maintenance of a stubborn resistance, courage, and union. Our bravery is proved by our faultless mobilization and by the multitude of voluntary engagements. This is the moment for action. I have called you together in order to allow the Chamber to participate in the enthusiasm of the country. You will know how to adopt with urgency all necessary measures. Are you decided to maintain inviolate the sacred patrimony of our ancestors ?

No one will fail in his duty, and the army is capable of performing its task. The Government and I are fully confident. The Government is aware of its responsibilities, and will carry them out to the end to guard the supreme welfare of the country. If a stranger should violate our territory he will find all the Belgians gathered round their Sovereign, who will never betray his constitutional oath. I have faith in our destinies. A country, which defends itself wins the respect of everyone and cannot perish.

God will be with us !

The King of the Belgians, in assuming command of his troops issued the following proclamation to the Army:—

Soldiers! Without the slightest provocation from us, a neighbour, haughty in its strength, has torn up the treaty bearing its signature. It has violated the territory of our fathers. Because we have been worthy of ourselves, because we have refused to forfeit our honour, it has attacked us. But the whole world marvels at our loyal attitude which its respect and esteem strengthen in these supreme moments.

Seeing its independence threatened the nation trembles, and its children sprang to the frontier. Valiant soldiers of a sacred cause, I have confidence in your tenacious courage. I greet you in the name of Belgium. Your fellow-citizens are proud of you. And you will triumph; for you are the force serving in the interests of right. Cæsar said of your ancestors, "Of all the peoples of Gaul, the Belgians are the most brave."

Glory to you, Army of the Belgian people! Remember in the face of the enemy that you are fighting for the Fatherland and for your menaced homes. Remember, men of Flanders, the battle of the Golden Spurs.* And you, Walloons of Liege, who are at the place of honour at present, remember the six hundred men of Franchimont!

Soldiers! I am leaving Brussels to place myself at your head.

THE KAISER'S APPEAL TO HIS SUBJECTS.

A special edition of the *Gazette* publishes the following proclamation from the German Emperor to the German people:—

Since the foundation of the Empire it has been for 43 years the object of the efforts of myself and my ancestors to preserve the peace of the world and to advance by peaceful means our vigorous development. But our adversaries were jealous of the successes of our work. There has been latent hostility on the east and on the west and beyond the sea. It was borne by us till now, as we were aware of our responsibility and power. Now, however, these adversaries wish to humiliate us, asking that we should look on with crossed arms and watch our enemies preparing themselves for a coming attack. They will not suffer that we maintain resolute fidelity to our ally who is fighting for its position as a Great Power and with whose humiliation our power and honour would equally be lost. So the sword must decide.

In the midst of perfect peace the enemy surprises us. Therefore to arms! Any dallying, any temporizing would be, to betray the Fatherland. To be or not to be is the question for the Empire which our fathers founded. To be or not to be German power and German existence! We shall resist to the last breath of man and horse, and shall fight out the struggle even against a world of enemies. Never has Germany been subdued when it was united. Forward with God, who will be with us as He was with our ancestors!

Berlin, Aug. 6.

"WILHELM."

In the Reichstag on August 4, the German Emperor delivered a speech from the Throne.

In the course of his speech the Kaiser said:—

No lust of conquest impels us. We are inspired by an unflinching determination to keep the place on which God has put us for ourselves and all coming generations. My Government and, above all, my Chancellor, sought up to the last moment to avert the last extreme. In self-defence, which has been forced upon us, with a clear conscience and a clean hand we grasp the sword. My call goes out to the peoples and races of the German Empire to defend, in fraternal

* The allusion to the battle of the Golden Spurs is to the fight at Courtrai on July 11, 1302, when Robert, Count of Artois, who had defeated the Fleming in 1297, was defeated and slain by them. The conflict was called the battle of the Golden Spurs owing to the number of gilt spurs collected.

union with our allies; what we have created in peaceful work. After the example of our fathers, firm and loyal, serious and chivalrous, humble before God and rejoicing in fight before the enemy, we trust that the Eternal Almighty will strenthen our defence and bring it to a good end.

His Majesty afterwards addressed the Deputies as follows:—

You have read, gentlemen, what I said to my people from the balcony of the castle. I repeat that I no longer recognise any parties. I know only Germans (loud cheers), and in witness thereof, in witness that they are firmly resolved, without distinction of party, without distinction of social position or creed, to hold together with me through thick and thin, through need and death, I call upon the leaders of parties to come forward and give me their hands upon it.

THE GERMAN CHANCELLOR'S STATEMENT.

The Imperial Chancellor, in the course of his declaration in the Reichstag, said:—

In self-defence and by necessity our troops have occupied Luxemburg, and perhaps have already entered Belgian territory. This is an infraction of international law. Though the French Government have declared in Brussels that they are willing to respect Belgium's neutrality as long as the adversary respected it, we knew that France was ready for invasion. France was able to wait. We were not. A French aggression into our flank on the Lower Rhine would have been disastrous. We were, therefore, compelled to overrule the legitimate protest of the Luxemburg and Belgium Governments. We shall repair the wrong which we are doing as soon as our military aims have been reached.

Anybody threatened as we are and fighting for his most sacred possessions must only think of pulling through. As to the attitude of England, the statement made by Sir Edward Grey in the House of Commons has clearly laid down the point of view taken by the British Government that as long as Great Britain keeps neutral our fleet would not attack the northern coast of France, and that we would not touch the territorial integrity and the independence of Belgium. I herewith repeat this declaration publicly before the whole world, and I may add that so long as England keeps neutral, we would be willing, in case of reciprocity, not to undertake any hostile operations against French mercantile shipping.

In an interview the German Imperial Chancellor (in Aug. 14) stated that the war was a life-and-death struggle between Germans and the Muscovite races of Russia, and was due to the recent Royal murder, at Serajevo. "We warned Russia," he said, "against kindling this world war. She demanded the humiliation of Austria, and while the German Emperor continued his work in the cause of peace, and the Tsar was telegraphing words of friendship to him, Russia was preparing for war against Germany. Highly civilized France, bound by an unnatural alliance with Russia, was compelled to prepare by strength of arms for an attack on its flank on the Franco-Belgian frontier in case we proceeded against the French frontier works. England, bound to France by obligations disowned long ago stood in the way of a German attack on the northern coast of France. Necessity, therefore, forced us to violate the neutrality of Belgium, but we had promised emphatically to compensate the country for all damage inflicted. Now England avails herself of the longwaited opportunity to commence a war for the destruction of commercially prosperous Germany. We enter into the war with our trust in God. Our eternal race has risen in a fight for liberty as it did in 1813. It is with a heavy heart that we see England ranged among our opponents, notwithstanding blood relationship, and close relationship in spiritual and cultural work between the two countries. England has placed herself on

the side of Russia, whose insatiability and whose barbaric insolence have helped this war, the origin of which was murder and the purpose of which was the humiliation and suppression of the German race by Russian Pan-Slavism. We expect that the sense of justice of the American people will enable them to comprehend our situation. We invite their opinion as to the one-sided English representations, and ask them to examine our point of view in an unprejudiced way. The sympathy of the American nation will then lie with German culture and civilization fighting against a half-Asiatic and slightly-cultured barbarism.

JAPAN'S ULTIMATUM TO GERMANY.

The text of the ultimatum which was handed to the German Ambassador by Japan on the 15th August is as follows:—

"We consider it highly important and necessary in the present situation to take measures to remove the causes of all disturbances of peace in the Far East and to safeguard the general interest contemplated by the Agreement of Alliance between Japan and Great Britain in order to secure a firm and enduring peace in Eastern Asia, the establishment of which is the aim of the said agreement. The Imperial Japanese Government sincerely believe it their duty to give advice to the Imperial German Government to carry out the following two propositions: Firstly, to withdraw immediately from Japanese and Chinese waters German men-of-war and armed vessels of all kinds and to disarm at once those which cannot be so withdrawn, and, secondly, to deliver on a date not later than September 15th to the Imperial Japanese authorities, without condition or compensation, the entire leased territory of Kiaochou with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China."

The Imperial Japanese Government announced at the same time that in the event of their not receiving by noon, August 23rd, 1914, the answer of the Imperial German Government signifying unconditional acceptance of the above advice offered by the Imperial Japanese Government they will be compelled to take such action as they may deem necessary to meet the situation.

THE MIKADO'S DECLARATION.

The following is the text of Japan's declaration of war against Germany:—

"We, by the Grace of Heaven, the Emperor of Japan, on the Throne occupied by the same Dynasty from time immemorial, do hereby make the following Proclamation to all our loyal and brave subjects.

"We hereby declare war against Germany, and we command our Army and Navy to carry on hostilities against that Empire with all the strength, and we also command all our competent authorities to make every effort in pursuance of their respective duties to attain the national aim within the limit of the law of nations.

"Since the outbreak of the present war in Europe, the calamitous effect of which we view with grave concern, we, on our part, have entertained hopes of preserving the peace of the Far East by the maintenance of strict neutrality, but the action of Germany has at length compelled Great Britain, our Ally, to open hostilities against that country, and Germany is, at Kiao-Chau, its leased territory in China, busy with warlike preparations, while her armed vessels, cruising seas of Eastern Asia, are threatening our commerce and that of our Ally.

"Peace of the Far East is thus in jeopardy. Accordingly our Government and that of his Britannic Majesty, after a full and frank communication with each other, agreed to take such measures as may be necessary for the protection of the general interests contemplated in the Agreement of Alliance; and we, on our part, being desirous to attain that object by peaceful means, commanded our Government to offer with

sincerity an advice to the Imperial German Government.

"By the last day appointed for the purpose, however, our Government failed to receive an answer accepting their advice.

"It is with profound regret that we, in spite of our ardent devotion to the cause of peace, are thus compelled to declare war, specially at this early period of our reign, and while we are still in mourning for our lamented Mother.

"It is our earnest wish that by the loyalty and valour of our faithful subjects peace may soon be restored, and the glory of the Empire be enhanced."

Why Great Britain Wages War.

Sir Edward Grey.

In the House of Commons on the 3rd instant, Sir E. Grey (Secretary for Foreign Affairs) made the following statement concerning the European crisis :—

Last week I stated that we were working for peace, not only for this country but to preserve the peace of Europe. To-day—events move so rapidly it is exceedingly difficult to state with technical accuracy the actual state of affairs—it is clear that the peace of Europe cannot be preserved. Russia and Germany, at any rate, have declared war with each other. Before I proceed to state the position of His Majesty's Government and what our attitude is with regard to the present crisis I would like to clear the ground, that the House may know exactly under what obligations the Government is, or the House can be said to be, in coming to a decision in the matter. First of all, let me say very shortly that we have consistently worked with a single mind, and with all the earnestness in our power, to preserve peace. (Cheers.) The House may be satisfied on that point. We have always done it; and in these last years, as far as His Majesty's Government is concerned, we shall have no difficulty in proving we have done it. Through the Balkan crisis, by general admission, we worked for the peace. Well, the co-operation of the Great Powers of Europe was successful in working for peace in the Balkan crisis. It is true that some of the Powers had great difficulty in adjusting their point of view. It took much time, labour, and discussion before they could settle their differences, but peace was secured because peace was their main object, and they were willing to give time and trouble rather than accentuate differences rapidly.

THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR WAR.

In the present crisis it has not been possible to secure the peace of Europe, because there has been little time, and there has been a disposition, at any rate in some quarters, on which I will not dwell, to enforce things rapidly to an issue, at any rate to the great risk of peace. As we now know, the result of that is that the policy of peace, as far as the Great Powers generally are concerned, has failed. I do not want to dwell on that or to comment upon it and say where the blame seems to us to lie and which Powers were most in favour of peace and which were most disposed to risk or endanger peace, because I would like the House to approach this crisis, in which we now are from the point of view of British interests, British honour—(loud cheers)—and British obligations, free from all passion. We shall publish papers as soon as we can regarding what took place last week when we were working for peace, and when those papers are published I

have no doubt that to every human being they will make it clear how strenuous and genuine and whole-hearted our own efforts for peace were, and they will enable people to form their own judgment upon what forces were at work which operated against peace.

BRITISH OBLIGATIONS.

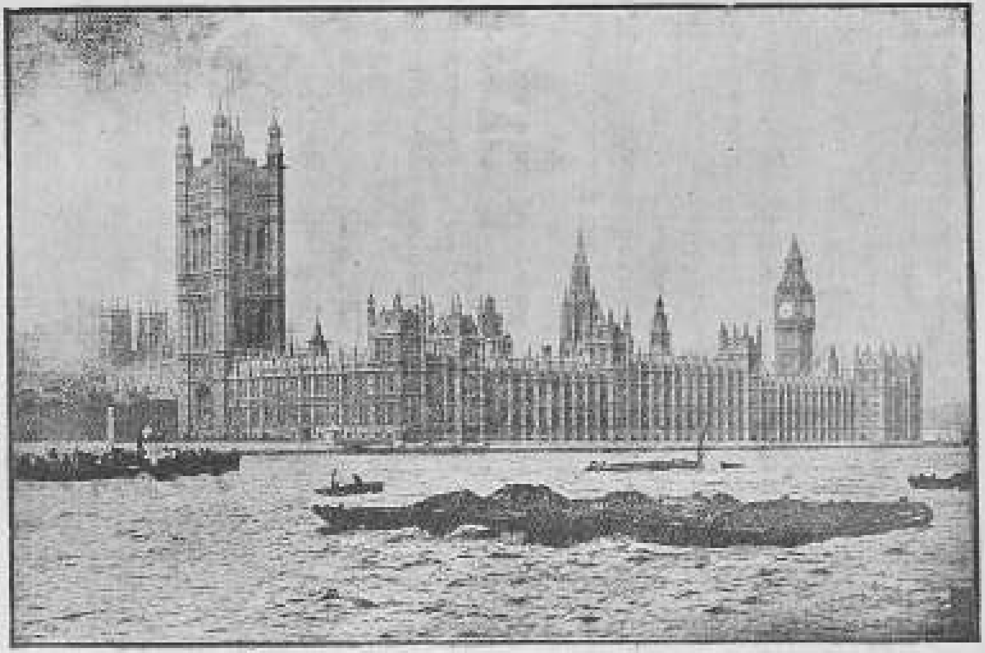
Now I come first to the question of British obligations. I have assured the House, and the Prime Minister has assured the House more than once that if any crisis such as this arose we should come before the House of Commons and be able to say that it was free to decide what the British attitude should be—(cheers)—that we would have no secret engagement—(cheers)—to bring upon the House and tell the House that because we had entered into the engagement there was an obligation of honour on the country. I will deal with that point and clear the ground first. There have been in Europe two diplomatic groups—the Triple Alliance and what has come to be known for some years as the Triple *Entente*. The Triple *Entente* was not an alliance; it was a diplomatic group. (Hear, hear.) The House will remember that in 1908 there was a crisis, a Balkan crisis, which originated in the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Russian Minister, M. Isvolsky came to London—his visit had been planned before the crisis broke out—and I told him definitely then that this being a Balkan affair I did not consider that public opinion in this country would justify us in promising him anything more than diplomatic support. More was never asked from us, more was never given, and more was never promised. In this present crisis up till yesterday we had also given no promise of anything more than diplomatic support ("Hear hear" from below the Ministerial gangway.) Up till yesterday no promise of anything more than diplomatic support was given.

THE ALGECIRAS CONFERENCE.

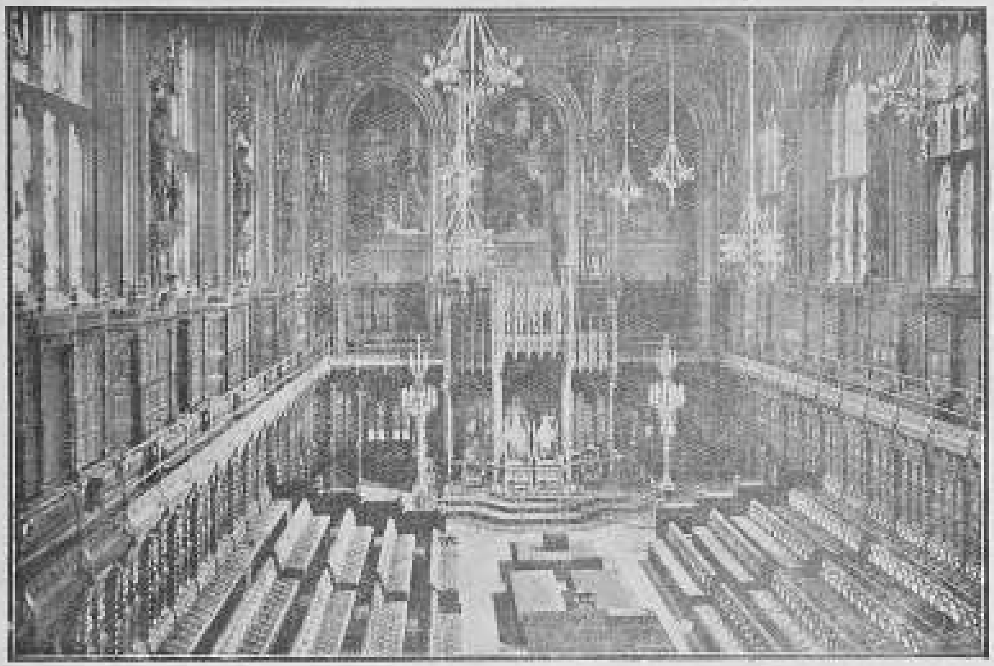
Now to make this question of obligation clear to the House I must go back to the Morocco crisis of 1906. That was the time of the Algeciras Conference. It came at a time very difficult for His Majesty's Government, when a General Election was in progress, Ministers were scattered all over the country, and I was spending three days a week in my constituency and three days at the Foreign Office. I was asked whether if that crisis developed and there were war between France and Germany we would give armed support. I said then that I could promise nothing to any foreign Power unless it was subsequently to receive the whole-hearted support of public opinion here when the occasion arose. I said that in my opinion if a war were forced upon France then on the question of Morocco—a question which had just been the subject of agreement between this country and France—an agreement exceedingly popular on both sides—(hear, hear)—if out of that agreement war were forced upon France at that time the public opinion of this country, I thought would rally to the material support of France. (Cheers.) I expressed that opinion, but I gave no promise. I expressed that opinion throughout that crisis, so far as I remember, almost in the same words to the French Ambassador and the German Ambassador, I made no promise and I used no threat.

NAVAL AND MILITARY CONSULTATIONS.

That position was accepted by the French Government, but they said to me at the time, and I think very reasonably, "If you think it posible that public opinion in Great Britain might, when a sudden crisis arose, justify you in giving to France the armed support which you cannot promise in advance, then, unless between military and naval experts some conversations have taken place, you will not be able to give that support, even if you wish to give it, when the time comes." There was force in



THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.



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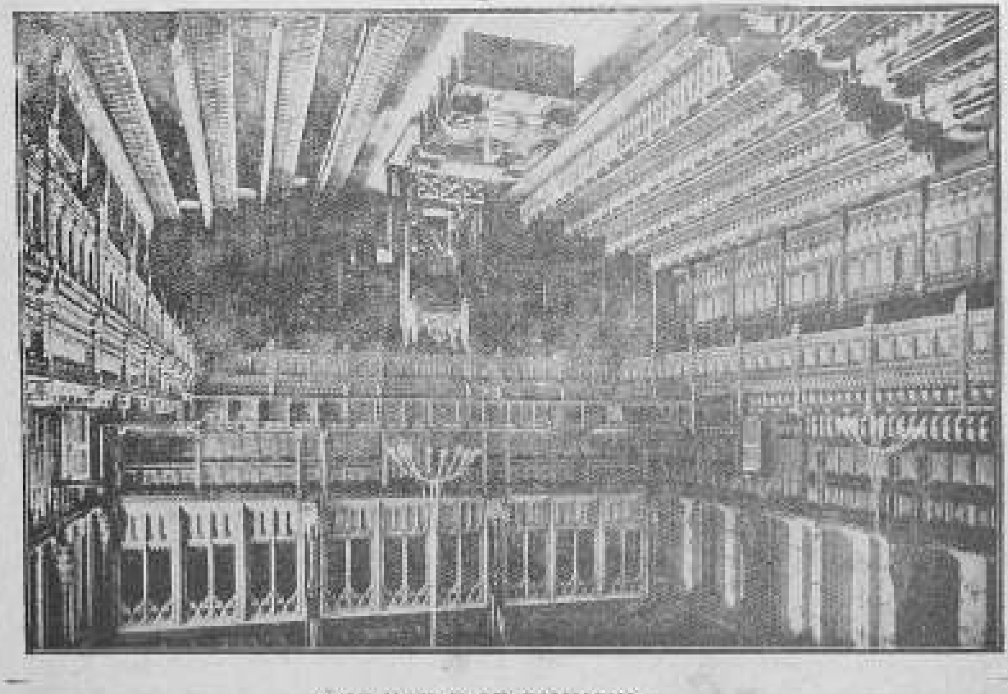


THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

that. I agreed to it and authorised the conversations to take place, but on the distinct understanding that nothing which passed between the military and naval experts should bind either Government or restrict in any way their freedom to come to a decision as to whether or not they would give their support when the time arose. (Mr. Asquith here said something to Sir E. Grey, but what he said was not heard in the Press Gallery.) I have told the House that on that occasion a General Election was in progress. I had to take the responsibility without the Cabinet. It could not be summoned, and an answer had to be given. I consulted Sir H. Campbell Bannerman, the then Prime Minister. I consulted Lord Haldane, who was Secretary for War, and I consulted the present Prime Minister, who was Chancellor of the Exchequer. That was the most I could do. It was authorised but on the distinct understanding that it left the hands of the Government free whenever a crisis arose. The fact that conversations between naval and military experts took place was later on—I think much later, because that crisis had passed and ceased to be of importance—brought to the knowledge of the Cabinet. Another Morocco crisis, the Agadir crisis, came, and I took precisely the same line, and throughout that I took precisely the same line as in 1906.

A WRITTEN UNDERSTANDING.

Subsequently, in 1912, after a discussion of the situation in the Cabinet, it was decided that we ought to have a definite understanding in writing, though it was only in the form of an unofficial letter, that these conversations were not binding on the freedom of either Government. On the 22nd November, 1912, I wrote to the French Ambassador the letter which I will now read to the House, and I received from him a letter in similar terms in reply. The letter which I have to read will be known to the public now as the record that whatever took place between military and naval experts, they were not binding engagements on the Government. This is the letter:—

My dear Ambassador.—From time to time in recent years French and British naval and military experts have consulted together. It has always been understood that such consultation does not restrict the freedom of either Government to decide at any future time whether or not to assist the other by armed force. We have agreed that consultation between experts is not and ought not to be regarded as an engagement which commits either Government to action in a contingency which has not yet arisen and may never arise. The disposition, for instance, of the French and British Fleets respectively at the present moment is not based on an engagement to co-operate in war. You have, however, pointed out that if either Government had grave reason to expect an unprovoked attack by a third Power it might become essential to know whether in that event it could depend on the armed assistance of the other. I agree that if either Government had grave reason to expect an unprovoked attack by a third Power or something which threatened the general peace it should immediately discuss with the other whether both Governments should act together to prevent aggression and to preserve peace, and, if so, what measures they would be prepared to take in common.

A STARTING POINT.

That is the starting point for the Government with regard to the present crisis. I think it makes it clear that what the Prime Minister and I have said in the House of Commons was perfectly justified as regards our freedom to decide in a crisis what our line should be—whether we should intervene or abstain. The Government remained perfectly free, and *a fortiori* the House of Commons remained perfectly free. (Hear, hear.) That I say to clear the ground from the point of view of obligations, and I think it was due to prove our good faith to the House of Commons, that I should give that full information to the House now and say, what I think is obvious from the letter I have just read, that we do not construe anything which has previously taken place in our diplomatic relations with other Powers in this matter as restricting the freedom of the Government to decide what attitude they shall take now or restricting the freedom of the House of Commons to decide what their attitude shall be. (Hear, hear.) I will go further and say this; that the situation in the

present crisis is not precisely the same as it was on the Morocco question. In the Morocco question it was primarily a dispute which concerned France. It was a dispute, as it seemed to us, fastened upon France out of an agreement subsisting between us and France and published to the whole world, under which we engaged to give France diplomatic support. We were pledged to nothing more than diplomatic support, but we were definitely pledged by a definite public agreement to side with France diplomatically on that question.

FRENCH DESIRE FOR PEACE.

The present crisis has originated differently. It has not originated in connection with Morocco or in connection with anything as to which we have a special agreement with France. It has not originated in anything which primarily concerns France. It originated in a dispute between Austria and Servia. I can say this with the most absolute confidence that no Government and no country had less desire to be involved in the dispute between Austria and Servia than the Government and country of France. (Cheers.) They are involved in it because of their obligation of honour —(Opposition cheers)—under their definite alliance with Russia. (Cheers.) It is only fair to say that that obligation of honour cannot apply in the same way to us. (Cries of "Hear hear" below the Ministerial gangway.) We are not parties to the Franco-Russian Alliance. We do not even know the terms of it. So far, I have, I think, faithfully and completely cleared the ground with regard to the question of obligations.

OUR ATTITUDE TO FRANCE.

I now come to what the situation requires of us. We have had for many years a long-standing friendship with France.

An Hon'ble Member—And with Germany.

Sir E. Grey—I remember well the feeling of the House and my own feeling, for I spoke on the subject, when the late Government made their agreement with France—the warm and cordial feeling resulting from the fact that the two nations who had had perpetual differences in the past had cleared those differences away. (Cheers.) I remember saying that it seemed to me that some benign influence had been at work to produce the cordial atmosphere which had made that possible. But how far that friendship entails obligations—and it has been a friendship between the two nations ratified by the nations—how far that friendship entails the obligations let every man look into his own heart and feelings and construe the extent of the obligations himself. (Cheers). I construe it myself as I feel it, but I do not wish to urge upon anybody else more than their feelings dictate as to all that they should feel about the obligations. The House individually and collectively may judge for itself. Now I speak from the point of view of my own personal feeling. The French Fleet is in the Mediterranean. (Cheers.) The northern and western coasts of France are absolutely unprotected. When the French fleet came to be concentrated in the Mediterranean there was a situation very different from what it used to be, because the friendship which has grown up between the two countries has given France a sense of security that there is nothing to be feared from us (Cheers). Her coasts are absolutely undefended. Her fleet is in the Mediterranean, and has for some years been concentrated there, because of the feeling of confidence and friendship which has existed between the two countries.

"WE COULD NOT STAND ASIDE."

My own feeling is this—that if a foreign fleet engaged in a war which France had not sought and in which she had not been the aggressor came down the English Channel and bombarded and battered the undefended coasts of France we could not stand aside—(loud and prolonged cheers)—and see such a thing going on practi-

cally within sight of our eyes, with our arms folded, looking on dispassionately, doing nothing—(cheers)—and I believe that would be the feeling of the country. (Loud cheers and some cries of dissent from the benches below the gangway on the Ministerial side). There are times when one's own individual sentiments make one feel that if these circumstances actually did arise that feeling would spread with irresistible force throughout the land. (Cheers.) But I want to look at the thing also without sentiment from the point of view of British interests—(cheers)—and it is on that I am going to base and justify what I presently am going to say to the House. If we are to say anything at this moment, what is France to do with her fleet in the Mediterranean? If she leaves it there with no statement from us as to what we will do she leaves her nothern and western coasts absolutely undefended, at the mercy of a German Fleet coming down the Channel to do as it pleases in a war which is a war of life and death between them. (Cheers.) If we say nothing, it may be that the French Fleet will be withdrawn from the Mediterranean. We are in the presence of a European conflagration. Can anybody set limits to the consequences which may arise out of it? Let us assume that to-day we stand aside in an attitude of neutrality, saying: "No, we cannot undertake and engage to help either party in this conflict"; let us assume that the French Fleet is withdrawn from the Mediterranean. The consequences are tremendous of what has already happened in Europe, even in countries which are at peace—in fact, equally whether countries are at peace or at war. Let us assume that out of that come consequences unforeseen, which make it necessary at a sudden moment that in defence of vital British interests we should go to war. And let us assume—which is quite possible—that Italy, who is now neutral—(Ministerial cheers)—because as I understand she considers that this war is an aggressive war—(loud cheers)—and that the Triple Alliance, being a defensive alliance, her obligations do not arise—let us assume that consequences which are now not foreseen, perfectly legitimately consulting her own interests, should make Italy depart from her attitude of neutrality at a time when we are forced in defence of vital British interests to fight ourselves, what will be the position in the Mediterranean then? It might be that at some critical moment those consequences would be forced upon us when the trade routes in the Mediterranean might be vital to this country. Nobody can say that in the course of the next few weeks there is any particular trade route the opening of which may not be vital to this country. What will be our position then? We have not kept a fleet in the Mediterranean which is equal to deal with a combination of other fleets alone in the Mediterranean, and as that would be the very moment when we could not detach more ships for the Mediterranean we might have exposed this country, from our negative attitude at the present moment, to the most appalling risk.

ASSURANCE OF BRITISH PROTECTION.

In these circumstances from the point of view of British interests, we felt strongly that France was entitled to know at once—(loud cheers)—whether or not in the event of an attack upon her unprotected northern and western coasts she could depend on British support. (Cheers) In that emergency and in these compelling circumstances yesterday afternoon I gave to the French Ambassador the following statement:—

> I am authorised to give the assurance that if the German Fleet comes into the Channel or through the North Sea to undertake hostile operations against the French coasts or shipping the British Fleet will give all the protection in its power.

This assurance is of course, subject to the policy of His Majesty's Government receiving the support of Parliament, and must not be taken as binding His Majesty's Government to take any action until the above contingency or action

of the German Fleet takes place. I read that to the House not as a declaration of war on our part, not as entailing immediate aggressive action on our part, but as binding us to take aggressive action should that contingency arise. Things move very hurriedly from hour to hour, fresh news comes in, and I cannot give this in any very formal way; but I understand that the German Government would be prepared if we would pledge ourselves to neutrality to agree that its fleet would not attack the northern coast of France. (Ironical laughter.) I have only heard that shortly before I came to the House, but that is far too narrow an engagement for us. (Cheers.)

THE NEUTRALITY OF BELGIUM.

And, sir, there is the very serious consideration, becoming more serious every hour—there is the question of the neutrality of Belgium. I shall have to put before the House at some length what our position in regard to Belgium is. The governing factor is the Treaty of 1839, but this is a Treaty with a history which has accumulated since. In 1870 when there was war between France and Germany the question of the neutrality of Belgium arose and various things were said. Among other things Prince Bismarck gave an assurance to Belgium—that confirming his verbal assurance he gave in writing a declaration which he said was superfluous in reference to the Treaty in existence—that the German Confederation and its allies would respect the neutrality of Belgium, it being always understood that that neutrality would be respected by the other belligerent Powers. That is valuable as a recognition in 1870 on the part of Germany of the sacredness of these Treaty rights. What was our own attitude? The people who laid down the attitude of the British Government were Lord Grenville in the House of Lords and Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons. Lord Grenville on the 8th August used these words. He said:—

We might have explained to the country and to foreign nations that we did not think this country was bound either morally or internationally, or that its interests were concerned in the maintenance of the neutrality of Belgium: though this course might have had some convenience, though it might have been easy to adhere to it, though it might have saved us from some immediate danger, it is a course which Her Majesty's Government thought it impossible to adopt in the name of the country with any due regard to the country's honour and the country's interests.

Mr. Gladstone spoke as follows two days later:—

There is, I admit, the obligation of the Treaty. It is not necessary nor would time permit me to enter into the complicated question of the nature of the obligation under that Treaty. But I am not able to subscribe to the doctrine of those who have held in this House what plainly amounts to the assertion that the simple fact of the existence of a guarantee is binding on every party to-day irrespectively altogether of the particular position in which it may find itself at the time when the occasion for acting on the guarantee arises. The great authorities upon foreign policy to whom I have been accustomed to listen, such as Lord Aberdeen and Lord Palmerston, never to my knowledge took that rigid and, if I may venture to say so, that impracticable view of the guarantee. The circumstance that there is already an existing guarantee in force is of necessity an important fact, and a weighty element in the case to which we are bound to give full and ample consideration. There is also this further consideration, the force of which we must all feel most deeply, and that is the common interest against the unmeasured aggrandisement of any Power whatever.

Well, sir, the Treaty is an old Treaty—1839. That was the view taken of it in 1870. It is one of those Treaties which are founded not only out of consideration for Belgium, which benefits under the Treaty, but in the interests of those who guarantee the neutrality of Belgium. The honour and interest is at least as strong to-day as it was in 1870, and we cannot take a more narrow view or a less serious view of our obligations and of the importance of those obligations than was taken by Mr. Gladstone's Government in 1870.

ATTITUDE OF FRANCE AND GERMANY.

Well now, sir, I will read to the House what took place last week on this subject. When mobilisation was beginning I knew that this question must be a most important element in our policy, a most important subject for the House of Commons. I telegraphed at the same time in similar terms to both Paris and Berlin to say that it was

essential for us to know whether the French and German Governments respectively were prepared to undertake an engagement to respect the neutrality of Belgium. These are the replies :—

I got from the French Government this :—

The French Government are resolved to respect the neutrality of Belgium, and it would only be in the event of some other Power violating that neutrality that France might find herself under the necessity in order to assure the defence of her security, to act otherwise. This assurance has been given several times. The President of the Republic spoke of it to the King of the Belgians, and the French Minister at Brussels has spontaneously renewed the assurance to the Belgian Minister of Foreign Affairs to-day.

From the German Government the reply was:—

The Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs could not possibly give an answer before consulting the Emperor and the Chancellor.

Sir Edward Goschen, to whom I had said it was important to have an answer soon, said he hoped the answer would not be too long delayed. The German Minister for Foreign Affairs then gave Sir Edward Goschen to understand that he rather doubted whether they could answer at all, as any reply they might give could not fail in the event of war to have the undesirable effect of disclosing to a certain extent part of their plan of campaign. I telegraphed at the same time to Brussels to the Belgian Government, and I got the following reply from Sir Francis Villiers :—

The Minister for Foreign Affairs thanks me for the communication and replies that Belgium will, to the utmost of her power, maintain neutrality and expects and desires other Powers to observe and uphold it. He begged me to add that the relations between Belgium and the neighbouring Powers was excellent, and there was no reason to suspect their intentions, but that the Belgian Government believed that in the case of violation they were in a position to defend the neutrality of their country. (Loud cheers.)

GERMAN ULTIMATUM TO BELGIUM.

It now appears from the news I have received to-day which has come quite recently—and I am not yet quite sure how far it has reached me in an accurate form—that an ultimatum has been given to Belgium by Germany, the object of which was to offer Belgium friendly relations with Germany on condition that she would facilitate the passage of German troops through Belgium. Well, sir, until one has these things absolutely definitely up to the last moment, I do not wish to say all that one would say if one was in a position to give the House full, complete, and absolute information upon the point; sir, we were sounded once in the course of last week as to whether if a guarantee was given that after the war Belgian integrity would be preserved that would content us. We replied that we could not bargain away whatever interests or obligations we had in Belgian neutrality. (Loud cheers.) Shortly before I reached the House I was informed that the following telegram had been received from the King of the Belgians by King George :—

Remembering the numerous proofs of your Majesty's friendship and that of your predecessor and the friendly attitude of England in 1870 and the proof of friendship you have just given us again, I make a supreme appeal to the diplomatic intervention of Your Majesty's Government to safeguard the integrity of Belgium.

CONSEQUENCES OF VIOLATION.

Diplomatic intervention took place last week on our part. What can diplomatic intervention do now? We have great and vital interests in the independence of Belgium and integrity is the least part. If Belgium is compelled to submit to allow her neutrality to be violated, of course the situation is clear. Even if by agreement she admitted the violation of her neutraliy, it is clear she could only do so under pressure. The smaller States in that region of Europe ask but one thing; their one desire is that they should be left alone and independent. The one thing they fear is, I think, not so much that their integrity should be interfered with, but their independence. If in this war which is before Europe the neutrality of one of those countries is violated, if the troops of one of the combatants should violate its neutrality and no action should be taken to resent it, at the end of the war, whatever the integrity may be, the independence will be gone. I have one further quotation from Mr. Gladstone as to what he

thought about the independence of Belgium. He said :—

We have an interest in the independence of Belgium which is wider than that we have in the literal operation of the guarantee. It is found in the answer to the question whether under the circumstances of the case this country, endowed as it is with influence and power, would quietly stand by and witness the perpetration of the direst crime that ever stained the pages of history and thus become participators in the sin." (Loud cheers.) No, sir, if it be the case that there has been anything in the nature of an ultimatum to Belgium, asking her to compromise or violate her neutrality, whatever may have been offered to her in return, her independence is gone if that holds, and if her independence goes the independence of Holland will follow.

THE ISSUES AT STAKE.

I ask the House, from the point of view of British interests, to consider what may be at stake. If France, beaten in a struggle of life and death, beaten to her knees, loses her position as a great Power and becomes subordinate to the will and power of one greater than herself—consequences which I do not anticipate, because I am sure that France has the power to defend herself with all the energy and ability and patriotism which she has shown so often—still, if that were to happen, and if Belgium fell under the same dominating influence, and then Holland and then Denmark, then would not Mr. Gladstone's words come true, that there would be a "common interest against the unmeasured aggrandisement of any Power ?" and that Power would be opposite to us. It may be said, I suppose, that we might stand aside, husband our strength, and whatever happened in the course of this war, at the end of it intervene with effect to put things right and to adjust them to our own point of view. If, in a crisis like this, we run away from those obligations of honour and interest as regards the Belgian Treaty, I doubt whether, whatever material force we might have at the end, it would be of very much value in face of the respect that we should have lost. (Cheers.) And do not believe, whether a Great Power stands outside this war or not, it is going to be in a position at the end of this war to exert its material strength. (Hear, hear.) For us, with a powerful fleet, which we believe able to protect our commerce and to protect our shores and to protect our interests if we are engaged in war, we shall suffer but little more than we shall suffer if we stand aside. We are going to suffer I am afraid, terribly in this war, whether we are in it or whether we stand outside. (Hear, hear.) Foreign trade is going to stop, not because the trade routes are closed, but because there is no other trade at the other end. Continental nations engaged in war, all their populations, all their energies, all their wealth, engaged in a desperate struggle, they cannot carry on the trade with us that they are carrying on in times of peace, whether we are parties to the war or whether we are not. At the end of this war, whether we have stood aside or whether we have been engaged in it, I do not believe for a moment, even if we had stood aside and remained aside, that we should be in a position, a material position, to use our force decisively to undo what had happened in the course of the war to prevent the whole of the west of Europe opposite to us, if that had been the result of the war, falling under the domination of a single Power.

OUR MORAL POSITION.

And I am quite sure that our moral position would be such—(Loud cheers, in which the end of the sentence was lost.) Now, I have put the question of Belgium somewhat hypothetically because I am not yet sure of all the facts, but if the facts turn out to be as they have reached us at present it is quite clear that there is an obligation on this country to do its utmost to prevent the consequences to which those facts will lead if they are undisputed. I have read to the House the only engagement that we have yet taken definitely with regard to the use of force. I think it is due to the House to say that we have taken no engagement yet with regard to sending an Expeditionary armed force out of the country. Mobilisation of the Fleet has taken place ; mobili-

sation of the Army is taking place, but we have as yet taken no engagement, because I do feel that in the case of a European conflagration such as this, unprecedented, with our enormous responsibilities in India and other parts of the Empire, or in countries in British occupation, with all the unknown factors, we must take very carefully into consideration the use which we make of sending an Expeditionary Force out of the country until we know how we stand. One thing I would say, the one bright spot in the whole of this terrible situation is Ireland. The general feeling throughout Ireland—and I would like this to be clearly understood abroad—does not make that a consideration that we feel we have to take into account. (Loud and prolonged cheers.) I have told the House how far we have at present gone in commitments the conditions which influence our policy, and I have dwelt at length to the House upon how vital the condition of the neutrality of Belgium is. What other policy is there before the House?

UNCONDITIONAL NEUTRALITY IMPOSSIBLE.

There is but one way in which the Government could make certain at the present moment of keeping outside this war, and that would be that it should immediately issue a proclamation of unconditional neutrality. We cannot do that; we have made a commitment to France which I have read to the House which prevents us from doing that. We have got the consideration of Belgium which prevents us also from any unconditional neutrality, and without those conditions absolutely satisfied and satisfactory we are bound not to shrink from proceeding to the use of all the forces in our power. If we did take that line, and said we will have nothing whatever to do with this matter under any conditions—the Belgian Treaty obligations, the possible position in the Mediterranean, the damage to British interests, and what may happen to France from our failure to support France—if we were to say that all those things mattered nothing, were as nothing, and to say we would stand aside, we should, I believe, sacrifice our respect and good name and reputation before the world. (Loud cheers.) And we should not escape the most serious and grave economic consequences. My object has been to explain the view of the Government and to place before the House the issue and the choice. I do not for a moment conceal, after what I have said and after the information, incomplete as it is, that I have given to the House with regard to Belgium, that we must be prepared, and we are prepared, for the consequence of having to use all the strength we have at any moment, we know not how soon, to defend ourselves and to take our part. (Cheers.) We know, if the facts all be as I have stated them, though I have announced no impending aggressive action on our part, no final decision to resort to force at a moment's notice until we know the whole of the case, that the use of it may be forced upon us.

FORCES OF THE CROWN READY.

As far as the forces of the Crown are concerned, we are ready. I believe the Prime Minister and my right hon'ble friend the First Lord of the Admiralty have no doubt whatever that the readiness and the efficiency of those Forces were never at a higher mark than they are to-day, and never was there a time when confidence was more justified in the power of the Navy to protect our commerce and to protect our shores. The thought is with us always of the suffering and misery entailed, which no country in Europe will escape, and from which no application of neutrality will save us. The amount of harm that can be done by an enemy's ships to our trade is infinitesimal compared with the amount of harm that must be done by the economic conditions caused on the Continent. The most awful responsibility rests upon the Government in deciding what to advise the House of Commons to do. We have disclosed our mind to the House of Commons; we have dis-

closed the issue and the information which we have, and made clear to the House, I trust, that we are prepared to face that situation, and that should it develop, as it seems probable to develop, we will face it. (Cheers.) We worked for peace up to the last moment and beyond the last moment. How hard, how persistently, and how earnestly we strove for peace last week, the House will see from the papers that are before it. But that is over so far as the peace of Europe is concerned. We are now face to face with a situation and in all the consequences which it may yet have to unfold, we believe we shall have the support of the House at large in proceeding to whatever consequences, to whatever measures may be forced upon us by the development of facts or action taken by others. (Cheers.) I believe the country, so quickly has the situation been forced upon it, has not had time to realise the issue. It is perhaps, still thinking of the quarrel between Austria and Servia. The absurd complications of this matter which have grown out of the quarrel between Austria and Servia! Russia and Germany, we know, are at war; we do not yet know officially that Austair, the Ally whom Germany is to support, is yet at war with Russia. We know that a good deal has been happening on the French frontier. We do not know that the German Ambassador has left Paris. The situation has developed so rapidly that technically, as regards the conditions of war, it is most difficult to describe what has actually happened. I wanted to bring out the underlying thing which would affect our own conduct and our own policy, and to put them clearly. I have put these vital facts before the House, and if, as seems only too probable, we are forced, and rapidly forced, to take our stand upon those issues, then I believe, when the country realises what is at stake, what the real issues are, the magnitude of the impending dangers in the West of Europe which I have endeavoured to describe to the House, then I believe we shall be supported throughout, not only by the House of Commons, but by the determination and the resolution, the courage and the endurance of the whole country. (Loud and prolonged cheers.)

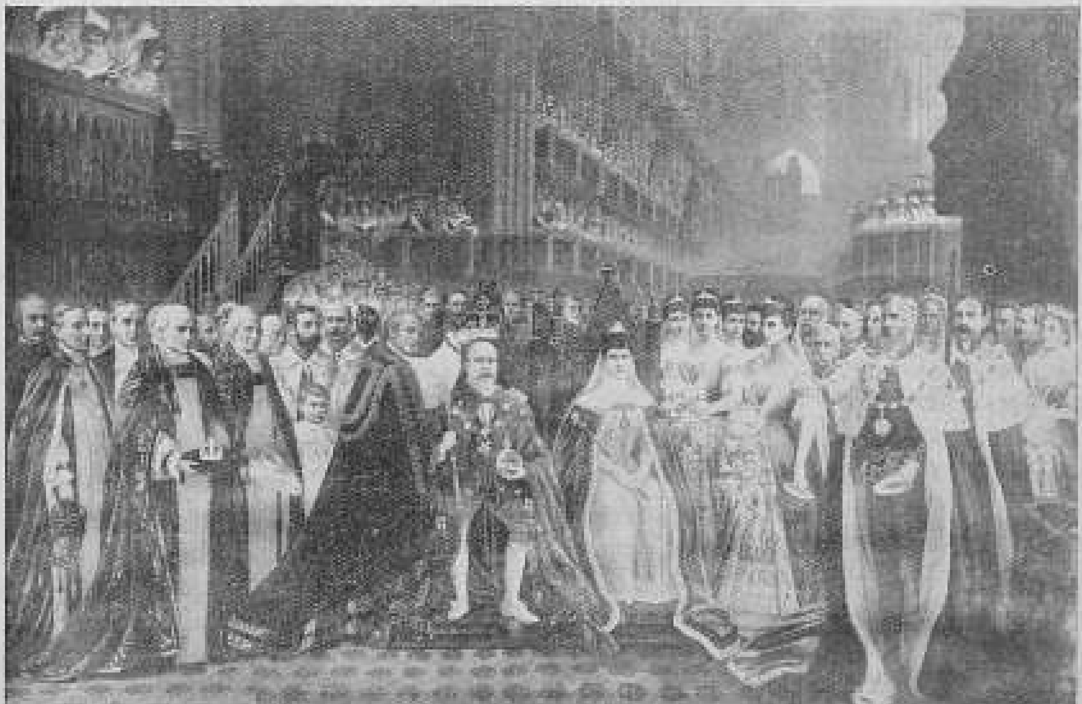
THE RT. HON. MR. ASQUITH.

Mr. Asquith's great speech in the House of Commons, in which he explained the reasons compelling England to enter the war for the sake of her honour and for the maintenance of civilisation in Europe, was delivered, "on the Vote for £100,000,000, beyond the ordinary grants of Parliament, towards defraying the expense that may be incurred during the year ending the 31st March, 1915, for all measures which may be taken for the security of the country, for the conduct of naval and military operations, for assisting the food supply, for promoting the continuance of trade, industry, and business communications, whether by means of insurance or indemnity against risk or otherwise, for the relief of distress, and generally for all expenses arising out of the existence of a state of war."

Mr. Asquith, who was received which cheers, said :—

In asking the House to agree to the Resolution I do not propose, because I do not think it in any way necessary, to traverse the ground again which was covered by my right hon'ble friend the Foreign Secretary two or three nights ago. He stated, and I do not think any of the statements he made are capable of answer, and certainly have not yet been answered (cheers), the grounds upon which with the utmost reluctance and infinite regret His Majesty's Government have been compelled to put this country in a state of war with what for many years, and, indeed, generations past, has been a friendly Power. But Sir, the Papers which have since been presented to Parliament, and are now in the hands of members will, I think, show how strenuous, how unremitting, how persistent, even when the last glimmer

CORONATION OF HER MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA.



CORONATION OF THEIR MAJESTIES KING EDWARD VII. AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA.

THE KING AND HIS SONS.

KING GEORGE.

THE PRINCE OF WALES.

PRINCE ALBERT.

PRINCE JOHN.

of hope seemed to have faded away were the efforts of my right hon'ble friend (cheers) to secure for Europe an honourable and lasting peace. Every one knows that in the great crisis which occured last year in the East of Europe it was largely, if not mainly, by the acknowledgment of all Europe, due to the steps taken by my right hon'ble friend that the area of the conflict was limited, and that so far as the Great Powers were concerned, peace was maintained. (Hear, hear.) If his efforts on this occasion have unhappily been less successful, I am certain that this House and the country, and I will add, posterity and history (cheers), will accord to him what is, after all, the best tribute that can be paid to any statesman. That, never derogating for an instant or by an inch from the honour and interests of his own country, he has striven as few men have striven to maintain and preserve that which is the greatest of interests of all countries—universal peace.

But, Sir, these Papers show something more than that. (Hear, hear.) They show what were the terms which were offered to us in exchange for our neutrality.

COMMUNICATIONS WITH BERLIN.

I trust not only the members of this House but all our fellow-subjects everywhere will read, learn, and mark the communications which passed only a week ago to-day between Berlin and London on this subject. The terms upon which it was sought to buy our neutrality (cheers) are contained in the communication made by the German Chancellor to Sir Edward Goschen on the 29th July, No. 85 of the published Paper. I think I must refer to them for a moment. (Cheers.) After referring to the state of affairs between Austria and Russia, Sir Edward Goschen proceeds:—"He then proceeded to make the following strong bid for British neutrality. He said that it was clear so far as he was able to judge the main principle which governed British policy, that Great Britain would never stand by and allow France to be crushed in any conflict there might be. That, however, was not the object at which Germany aimed, Provided the neutrality of Great Britain were certain every assurance would be given to the British Government that the Imperial Government aimed at no territorial acquisitions at the expense of France should they prove victorious in any war that might ensue."

Sir Edward Goschen proceeded to put a very pertinent question:—"I questioned His Excellency about the French Colonies." What do the French Colonies mean? They mean every part of the Dominions and possessions of France outside the geographical area of Europe. "He said he is unable to give a similar undertaking in that respect." (Cheers and laughter.)

POSITION OF SMALL STATES.

Let me come to what in this matter to my mind speaking for myself personally, has always been a crucial and almost the governing consideration—namely, the position of the small States. (Loud cheers) He said:—"As regards Holland, so long as Germany's adversaries respected the integrity and neutrality of the Netherlands, Germany was ready to give His Majesty's Government an assurance that she would do likewise." Then we come to Belgium. "It depended upon the action of France what operations Germany might be forced to enter upon in Belgium, but when the war was over, Belgian integrity would be respected if she had not decided against Germany." Let the House observe the distinction between these two cases. In regard to Holland not only independence and integrity—nor neutrality, at all—but an assurance that after the war came to an end the integrity of Belgium would be respected. Then His Excellency added that "ever since he had been Chancellor the object of his policy had been to bring about an understanding with England; he trusted that these assurances might form the basis of that understanding which

be so much desired." (Laughter.) What does that amount to? Let me just ask the House. I do so not with the object of inflaming passion, and certainly not with the object of exciting feeling against Germany, but I do so to vindicate and make clear the position of the British Government and Great Britain in this matter.

AN INFAMOUS PROPOSAL.

What did that proposal amount to? In the first place it meant this, that behind the back of France, which was not to be made a party to these communications at all, we should have given, if we had assented to them, free license to Germany to annex in the event of a successful war, the whole of the extra-European Dominions and possessions of France. What did it mean as regards Belgium? Belgium, when she addressed, as she did address in these last days, her moving appeal to us to fulfil our solemn guarantee of her neutrality, what reply should we have given? What reply could we have given to that Belgian appeal? We should have been obliged to say that without her knowledge we had bartered away to the Power that was threatening her our obligation to keep our plighted word. (Loud and prolonged cheers.)

Sir, the House has read, and the country has read, in the course of the last few hours the most pathetic address by the King of the Belgians to his people. (Cheers.) I do not envy the man who could read that appeal with unmoved heart. (Cheers.) The Belgians are fighting, they are losing their lives. (Loud cheers.) What would have been the position of Great Britain to-day in the face of that spectacle if we had assented to this infamous proposal? (Loud and prolonged cheers.)

GERMANY'S VIOLATED PROMISE.

Yes, and what were we to get in return? For the betrayal of our friends and the dishonour of our obligation, what were we to get in return? We were to get a promise—nothing more (Laughter)—as to what Germany would do in certain eventualities, a promise, be it observed—I am sorry to have to say it, but it must be put upon record—a promise given by a Power which was at that very moment announcing its intention to violate its own Treaty obligations (cheers) and inviting us to do the same. I can only say, if we had even dallied or temporized with such an offer, we, as a Government, should have covered ourselves with dishonour. We should have betrayed the interests of this country of which we are the trustees. (Cheers).

I am glad to turn to the reply which my right hon'ble friend made, and from which I will read to the House one or two of the more salient passages, because this document, No. 101, puts on record a week ago the attitude of the British Government and as I believe of the British people. My Right hon'ble friend says:—"His Majesty's Government cannot for a moment entertain the Chancellor's proposal that they should bind themselves to neutrality on such terms. What he asks us in effect is to engage to stand by, while French Colonies are taken, and France is beaten so long as Germany does not take French territory as distinct from the Colonies. From the material point of view"—my Right hon'ble friend, as he always does, uses very temperate language—"such proposal is unacceptable, for France, without further territory in Europe being taken from her could be so crushed as to lose her position as a Great Power and become subordinate to German policy."

A DISGRACEFUL BARGAIN.

That is the material aspect. He proceeds:—"Altogether apart from that it would be a disgrace to us to make this bargain with Germany at the expense of France, a disgrace from which the good name of this country would never recover. (Loud cheers.) The Chancellor also in effect asks us to bargain away whatever obligations or interests we have as regards the

neutrality of Belgium. We could not entertain that bargain either." He then says in these circumstances: "we must preserve our full freedom to act as circumstances may seem to us to require." I think in the circumstances the House will appreciate, I trust it will admire, the self-restraint of my Right hon'ble friend. He then said, "The one way of maintaining the good relations between England and Germany is that we should continue to work together to preserve the peace of Europe. . . . For that object His Majesty's Government will work with all sincerity and good will. . . If the peace of Europe can be preserved and the present crisis safely passed my own endeavour will be to promote some arrangement to which Germany could be a party by which she could be assured that no aggressive or hostile policy would be pursued against her or her Allies by France, Russia and ourselves, jointly or separately. I have desired this and worked for it as far as I could through the last Balkan crisis" —no statement was ever more true— and Germany having a corresponding object, our relations sensibly improved. The idea has hitherto been too Utopian to form the subject of definite proposals, but if this present crisis, so much more acute than any that Europe has gone through for generations, be safely passed, I am hopeful that the relief and reaction which will follow may make possible some more definite *rapprochement* between the Powers than has been possible hitherto." (Cheers.)

EFFORTS FOR PEACE.

That document, in my opinion, states clearly in temperate and dignified language the attitude of this country. (Cheers.) Can any one who reads it and who realises and appreciates the tone of obvious sincerity and earnestness which underlies it—can anyone honestly bring against the Government of this country the charge that in spite of great provocation—for I regard the proposals made to us as provocations,—we might have thrown aside without consideration and almost without answer (cheers), can any one doubt that in spite of great provocation my Right hon'ble friend, who had already earned the title—no one ever more deserved it—of the peacemaker of Europe (cheers) persisted to the very last moment of the last hour in that great and beneficent but unhappily frustrated purpose? (Cheers).

I am entitled to say, and I do say on behalf of this country—I speak not for a party but for the country as a whole (cheers)—we made every effort that a Government could possibily make for peace. This war has been forced upon us. (Cheers).

And what is it that we are fighting for? No one knows better than the members of the Government the terrible and incalculable sufferings, economic, social, personal, political, which war, especially war between the Great Powers of the world, must entail. There is not a man among us sitting on this bench in these trying days—more trying, perhaps, than any body of statesmen for a hundred years has had to pass through—there is not a man among us who has not during the whole of that time had clearly before his vision the almost unequalled suffering which war, even in a just cause, must bring about, not only to us, who are for the moment living in this country and in the other countries of the world, but to posterity and to the whole prospects of European civilisation. Every step we took, we took with that vision before our eyes, and with a sense of responsibility which it is impossible to describe. Unhappily, in spite of all our efforts to keep the peace and with that full and overpowering consciousness of the results of the issue if we decided in favour of war, nevertheless, we have thought it to be the duty as well as the interest of this country to go to the war. (Hear, hear.) The House may be well assured it was because we believe, and I am certain the country will believe, we are unsheathing our swords in a just cause. (Hear, hear).

WHAT WE ARE FIGHTING FOR.

If I am asked what we are fighting for, I can reply in two sentences. In the first place, to fulfil a solemn international obligation—an obligation which, if it had been entered into between private persons in the ordinary concerns of life would have been regarded as an obligation not only of law, but of honour, which no self-respecting man could possibly have repudiated. (Cheers.) I say, secondly, we are fighting to vindicate the principle which, in these days when material force sometimes seems to be the dominant influence and factor in the development of mankind, that small nationalities are not to be crushed, in defiance of international good faith, by the arbitrary will of a strong and overmastering Power. (Cheers.) I do not believe any nation ever entered into a great controversy—and this is one of the greatest history will ever know—with a clearer conscience and stronger conviction that it is fighting, not for aggression, not for the maintenance even of its own selfish interest, but in defence of principles the maintenance of which is vital to the civilisation of the world, and with the full conviction, not only of the wisdom and justice, but of the obligations which lay upon us to challenge this great issue. (Loud cheers.) If we are entering into the struggle, let us now make sure that all the resources, not only of this United Kingdom, but of the vast Empire of which it is the centre, shall be thrown into the scale, and it is that that object may be adequately secured that I am now about to make the very unusual demand upon the Committee to give the Government a Vote of Credit of £100,000,000. (Loud cheers.) I am not going—and I am sure the Committee do not wish it—into the technical distinction between Votes of Credit and Supplementary Estimates. There is a much higher point of view than that. If it were necessary I could justify upon purely technical grounds the course we propose to adopt, but I am not going to do so because I think it would be foreign to the temper and disposition of the Committee.

FOOD SUPPLIES AND TRADE.

There is one thing I do call attention to—that is the title and heading of the Bill. As a rule in the past Votes of this kind have been taken simply for naval and military operations, but we have thought it right to ask the Committee to give us its confidence in the extension of the traditional area of Votes of Credit so that this money which we are asking them to allow us to expend may be applied not only for strictly naval and military operations but to assist the food supplies, promote the continuance of trade, industry, business and communications, whether by means of insurance or indemnity against risk or otherwise, for the relief of distress, and generally for all expenses arising out of the existence of a state of war. I believe the Committee will agree with us that it was wise to extend the area of the Vote of Credit so as to include all these serious matters. (Hear, hear). It gives the Government a free hand. Of course the treasury will account for it, and any expenditure that takes place will be subject to the approval of the House, I think it would be a great pity, in fact a great disaster, if in a crisis of this magnitude we were not enabled to make provision—provision far more needed now than it was under the simpler conditions that prevailed in the old days (hear, hear)—for all the various ramifications and developments of expenditure which the existence of a state of war between the Great Powers of Europe must entail on any one of them. (Hear, hear.)

LORD KITCHENER.

I am asking also in my character of Secretary of State for War—a position which I held until this morning—for a Supplementary Estimate for men for the Army. Perhaps the Committee will allow me for a moment just to say on that per-

sonal matter, that I took upon myself the office of Secretary of State for War under conditions upon which I need not go back, which are fresh in the minds of every one, in the hope and with the object that the conditions of things in the Army which all of us deplored, might speedily be brought to an end and complete confidence re-established. I believe that is the case, in fact I know it to be. (Loud cheers). There is no more loyal and united body, no body in which the spirit and habit of discipline are more deeply ingrained and cherished than in the British Army. (Loud cheers.) Glad as I should have been to continue the work of that office, and would have done so under normal conditions, it would not be fair to the Army, it would not be just to the country, that any Minister should divide his attention between that Department and another, still less that the First Minister of the Crown, who has to look into the affairs of all Departments, and is ultimately responsible for the whole policy of the Cabinet, should give, as he could only give perfunctory attention to the affairs of our Army in a great war. (Hear, hear.) I am very glad to say that a very distinguished soldier and administrator in the person of Lord Kitchener, with the great public spirit and patriotism that every one would expect from him, at my request stepped into the breach. (Loud cheers.) Lord Kitchener, as every one knows, is not a politician. (Hear, hear.) His association with the Government as a member of the Cabinet for this purpose must not be taken as in any way identifying him with any set of political opinions. (Hear, hear). He has at a great public emergency responded to a great public call, and I am certain he will have with him in the discharge of one of the most arduous tasks that has ever fallen upon a Minister the complete confidence of all parties and all opinions (Cheers.)

500,000 ADDITIONAL MEN.

I am asking on his behalf for the Army power to increase the number of men of all ranks, in addition to the number already voted, by no fewer than 500,000. I am certain the Committee will not refuse its sanction, for we are encouraged to ask for it not only by our own sense of the gravity and the necessities of the case, but by the knowledge that India is prepared to send us certainly two divisions, and that every one of our self-governing Dominions, spontaneously and unasked, has already tendered to the utmost limits of its possibilities, both in men and in money, every help it can afford to the Empire in a moment of need. (Loud cheers.) Sir, the Mother Country must set the example, while she responds with gratitude and affection to those filial overtures from the outlying members of her family. (Loud cheers.)

I will say no more. This is not an occasion for controversial discussion. In all that I have said, either in the statement of our case or in my general description of the provision, we think it necessary to make, I believe I have not gone beyond the strict bounds of truth. It is not my purpose—it is not the purpose of any patriotic man—to inflame feeling, to indulge in rhetoric, to excite international animosities. The occasion is far too grave for that. (Hear, hear.) We have a great duty to perform, we have a great trust to fulfil, and we confidently believe that Parliament and the country will enable us to do it. (Loud cheers.)

MR. BONAR LAW.

Mr. Bonar Law, who rose amid cheers, said:—The Right hon'ble gentleman has made an appeal for support, and it is necessary that I should say a word or two, but they shall be very few. I wish to say in the first place that I do not believe there is a single member in the House who doubts that, not only the Right hon'ble gentleman him-

self, but the Government which he represents, have done everything in their power up to the last moment to preserve peace—(cheers)—and I think we may be sure that, if any other course is taken, it is because it is forced upon them, and that they have absolutely no alternative. (Hear, hear.) The Right hon'ble gentleman spoke of the bright spot in the picture which only a day or two ago was a black spot on the political horizon. Everything that he has said, I am sure, is true, but I should like to say this further—that if the contingencies which he has not put into words, but which are in all our minds as possible, arise, then we have already had indications that there is another bright spot, and that everyone of His Majesty's Dominions beyond the seas—(cheers)—will be behind us in whatever action it is necessary to take. (Cheers.) This only I shall say. The Government already know, but I give them now the assurance on behalf of the party of which I am the leader in this House that, whatever steps they think it necessary to take for the honour and security of this country, they can rely upon the unhesitating support of the Opposition. (Loud cheers.)

MR. JOHN REDMOND.

Mr. J. Redmond (N. Waterford), who was received with loud cheers, said:—I hope the House will not consider it improper on my part in the grave circumstances in which we are assembled if I intervene for a very few moments. I was moved a great deal by that sentence in the speech of the Secretary for Foreign Affairs in which he said that the one bright spot in the situation was the changed feeling in Ireland. In past times when this Empire has been engaged in these terrible enterprises, it is true—it would be the utmost affectation and folly on my part to deny it—the sympathy of the Nationalists of Ireland, for reasons to be found deep down in centuries of history, have been estranged from this country. Allow me to say that what has occurred in recent years has altered the situation completely. (Ministerial cheers.) I must not touch, and I may be trusted not to touch, on any controversial topic; but this I may be allowed to say, that wider knowledge of the real facts of Irish history has I think, altered the view of the democracy of this country towards the Irish question, and to-day I honestly believe that the democracy of Ireland will turn with the utmost anxiety and sympathy to this country in every trial and every danger that may overtake it. (Cheers.) There is a possibility, at any rate, of history repeating itself. The House will remember that in 1778, at the end of the disastrous American War, when it might, I think, truly be said that the military power of this country was almost at its lowest ebb, and when the shores of Ireland were threatened with foreign invasion, a body of 100,000 Irish volunteers sprang into existence for the purpose of defending her shores. At first no Catholic—ah, how sad the reading of the history of those days is!—was allowed to be enrolled in that body of volunteers, and yet from the very first day the Catholics of the South subscribed money and sent it towards the arming of their Protestant fellow-countrymen.

Ideas widened as time went on, and finally the Catholics in the South were armed and enrolled, brothers in-arms with their fellow-countrymen of a different creed in the North. May history repeat itself! (Cheers.) To-day there are in Ireland two large bodies of Volunteers. One of them sprang into existence in the North. Another has sprung into existence in the South. I say to the Government that they may to-morrow withdraw every one of their troops from Ireland. (Cheers.) I say that the coast of Ireland will be defended from foreign invasion by her armed sons, and for this purpose armed Nationalist Catholics in the South will be only too glad to join arms with armed Protestant Ulstermen in the North.

(Loud cheers.) And is it too much to hope that out of this situation there may spring a result which will be good, not merely for the Empire, but for the future welfare and integrity of the Irish nation? I ought to apologise for having intervened—("No, no")—but while Irishmen generally are in favour of peace, and would desire to save the democracy of this country from all the horrors of war—while we would make every possible sacrifice for that purpose; still, if the dire necessity is forced upon this country, we offer to the Government of the day that they may take their troops away, and that if it is allowed to us in comradeship with our brethren in the North, we will ourselves defend the coasts of our country. (Loud cheers.)

The Vicissitudes of Belgium

BY

THE REV. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A. B.D.

THE gallant little country which in defence of its independence has refused the arrogant demands of the German Government and has resisted bravely the hosts of invaders which in defiance of treaty obligations Germany has poured across its borders, has had but a short career as an independent nation. Belgium has taken its place among the sovereign states of Europe only since 1830, but the territories of which it is composed have had a long and chequered history. They are only too well acquainted with the tramp of soldiers, and with all the horrors of war. They have suffered in the past from Spanish intolerance and French ambition as they are suffering now from German aggression. The map of Belgium is thickly strewn with the names of famous battlefields and for nearly four hundred years it has been the scene of conflicts between the great powers of Europe.

Belgium derives its name from a Celtic tribe, or rather a confederation of tribes, the Belgae, which inhabited the lands lying between the Seine and the lower course of the Rhine. The confederacy extended into Britain, for the later Winchester was known to the Romans as Venta Belgarum. One of the chief tribes of the Belgic confederation, the Nervii, whose name is well-known to readers of Mark Antony's funeral oration over the body of Julius Cæsar, inhabited the modern Hainault, and it was on the banks of the Sambre, near the places where such desperate fighting has been taking place during the past month, that Cæsar 'overcame the Nervii.' When Gaul was conquered by Cæsar and was divided into its three famous parts the northernmost division was called Gallia Belgica.

When the Roman Empire broke up Belgium like the rest of Gaul was conquered by the Franks, and thus in course of time it came to form part of the Empire of Charlemagne. On the famous division of the Empire at Verdun between Charlemagne's three grandsons in 843, the southern and western portion of Belgium lying between the sea and the Scheldt was included in the kingdom of the West Franks which developed into modern France. The portion lying between the Scheldt and the Meuse went to form part of the middle kingdom over which the Emperor Lothar reigned.

The influx of Germans into Belgium had been so strong that in much of it the language became Teutonic and is represented now by the modern Flemish, a language very similar to Dutch. In other parts, however, the Latin speaking element proved strongest and there a romance language, known as Walloon and akin to modern French, grew up. At the present day a little more than half of the population speak Flemish while rather less than half speak French or Walloon. The educated classes generally speak French.

The part of Belgium which was connected with the French kingdom became in time the county of Flanders, one of the great fiefs which it was the constant aim of the more vigorous French kings to bring under their control. With regard to Flanders they were unsuccessful. Like most of the counties and duchies of the Netherlands it passed into the hands of the French Dukes of Burgundy and from them by marriage to the Hapsburgs. By the treaty of Crespy, made in 1544 between Francis I of France and the Emperor Charles V, Francis renounced the claims of France to Flanders and Artois.

When the middle kingdom broke up the eastern portion of Belgium became part of Lotharingia, which, in its turn, was subdivided into Upper and Lower Lotharingia. The latter broke up into a number of smaller fiefs, such as Hainault, Brabant, Luxemburg, Namur, and the Bishopric of Liege. In course of time, as has been mentioned, most of the fiefs in the Netherlands passed into the hands of the Dukes of Burgundy, a branch of the royal family of France. The last of these Dukes, Charles the Bold, aimed at reviving a middle kingdom between France and Germany. He failed and was slain at Nancy in 1487, and his heiress Mary married Maximilian of Austria, the future Emperor of Germany. Their son Philip married Juana the heiress of Spain, and their son was the Emperor Charles V, King of Spain, who was born at Ghent. Thus in an unhappy hour the Netherlands passed into the possession of Spain.

In the middle ages Flanders was the chief manufacturing centre in Europe. The citizens of its cities were renowned for their wealth and for the vigour with which they defended their liberties against their feudal lords. The Counts of Flanders had many conflicts with their independent subjects, and the Duke of Burgundy, as readers of *Quentin Durward* will remember, found the spirit of liberty that prevailed in Flanders an uncomfortable part of their inheritance. Flanders was the great market for English wool, and hence England and the Flemish towns sought to be on friendly terms, and sometimes England supported the townsfolk in their struggle with their lords.

Philip II who succeeded his father Charles V on the throne of Spain in 1556, soon found himself involved in a struggle with the Netherlands. There was a two-fold cause. It was the age in which European polity was characterised by the development of absolute monarchy, and Charles V backed by the Inquisition and by the wealth that flowed in from America had succeeded in crushing the liberties of Spain. The same process was now to be attempted by Philip in the Netherlands. Further many of the inhabitants of the Netherlands had become Calvinists, and Philip as the leader of the counter-Reformation was determined to extirpate heresy in his dominions. The sequel is well known. The notorious Duke of Alva instituted the "Council of Blood," the cruelties of which led to the Revolt of the Netherlands in 1568. William the Silent, Prince of Orange put himself at the head of the popular movement, and for years the struggle went on. At one time it seemed as if all the Netherlands would throw off the yoke of Spain, for in 1576 the seventeen provinces formed a defensive union known as the Pacification of Ghent, but the able Duke of Parma who became Governor in 1578 partly by concessions and partly by force succeeded in regain-

German Soldiers driving the inhabitants of Louvain before them during the sacking of the town.

Leopold, The First King of Belgium.

ing the southern provinces for the Spanish Crown. The seven northern provinces where Protestantism had not been stamped out formed in 1579 the Union of Utrecht, and thus founded the future Dutch Republic, the modern kingdom of Holland.

Belgium thus continued under the power of Spain, but its prosperity had gone. Alva's measures had ruined its commerce. Thousands of its skilled artisans had fled to England taking their industries with them and the rise of the sea-power of England and Holland ruined the trade of Antwerp.

For a short time the Spanish Netherlands passed into the hands of the Austrian branch of the house of Hapsburg, for Philip presented them as a dowry to his daughter Isabella on her marriage with the Archduke Albert of Austria in 1598. The Archdukes, as the new sovereigns were called, had no children, and on the death of the Archduke Albert in 1621 Belgium once again became the Spanish Netherlands. In consequence of this these territories played an important if somewhat passive part in the wars waged by Louis XIV. The Spanish Netherlands formed the prize which Louis XIV sought to wrest from Spain. The Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659 gave to France Artois, and parts of Flanders, Hainault and Luxemburg. A few years later on the death of the King of Spain, Louis who had married one of his daughters claimed some more of the Netherlands as his wife's share of the Spanish inheritance. This led to the War of Devolution in 1667 which was brought to an end by the formation of the famous Triple Alliance between England, Sweden and Holland. Louis by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668 thus succeeded in gaining only another instalment. As a matter of fact he had made a secret treaty with the Emperor for the partition of the Spanish dominions on the death of the sickly King Charles III, who, as it turned out, disappointed his expectant heirs by "taking an unconscionable time in dying." Another small instalment was gained in 1678 by the Treaty of Nimeguen which concluded his war with Holland.

The Dutch had now come to look on the Spanish Netherlands as an important barrier against French aggression. When the important but uninteresting war broke out, known as the War of the League of Augsburg, Belgium was the scene of the constant fighting that took place between William of Orange, now King of Great Britain, and the French, and when the war was ended by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697 the Dutch received the right of garrisoning the strong fortresses in Belgium on the French frontier. When on the death of Charles II in 1700 Philip the grandson of Louis XIV succeeded to the throne of Spain, one of the ominous signs of the policy that the Bourbon monarchs intended to adopt was the expulsion of the Dutch garrisons from the frontier barrier fortresses. It was plain that France regarded the Spanish Netherlands as her own, and it was this fear that led in no small measure to the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession in 1701. During that war Belgium was the chief battleground and several of the most famous victories gained by Marlborough were fought on Belgian soil. At the close of the war the Spanish Netherlands ceased to be Spanish as they passed into the possession of Austria, while the Dutch secured again the right to garrison the barrier fortresses, an arrangement which caused much ill-feeling both in Belgium and Austria.

During most of the eighteenth century Belgium shared the fortunes of Austria. The Emperor Charles VI, of Pragmatic Sanction fame, attempted to improve its trade by establishing the Ostend East India Company, but the jealousy of the Maritime Powers, as England and Holland were called, led to the failure of his scheme. On his death in 1742 the War of the Austrian Succes-

sion broke out and Belgium as usual became a battlefield. Nearly all of it was conquered by France only, however, to be restored to Austria in 1748 by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle—the same treaty which restored Madras to Great Britain.

Under Prince Charles of Lorraine who was sent as Governor by the Empress Maria Theresa Belgium enjoyed a short period of peace and prosperity, but when the benevolent Joseph II became Emperor his well-meaning but injudicious reforms caused trouble there as in most other parts of the Austrian dominions. The reforms he introduced both in Church and State were good in themselves and have been largely adopted in the modern Belgian constitution, but they were made with high-handed disregard of the ancient constitutions of the Netherlands and he thus succeeded in uniting against himself both the conservative and the liberal sections of his subjects. An insurrection took place in 1789. The Austrians were driven out and the provinces formed themselves into an independent state called United Belgium. At this juncture Joseph II died and was succeeded by his brother the tactful and conciliatory Leopold II. Leopold offered to restore the old constitution but his overtures were rejected. In the end of 1790 an Austrian army conquered Belgium, an amnesty was proclaimed, and the old constitution was restored. Joseph II had had a great scheme by which he proposed to exchange the Netherlands for Bavaria, but the German Princes led by Frederick the Great of Prussia prevented it from being carried out. He managed however to get rid of the Dutch garrisons from the barrier fortresses, and also by threatening the Dutch he secured some territorial concessions which rounded off the boundaries of Belgium and improved the position of Antwerp. Antwerp, however, still failed to regain its old place in the world of commerce. The Dutch during the war of independence had secured, and still hold, both banks of the Scheldt below Antwerp—a fact which gives rise at the present moment to important questions in international law. By the treaty of Münster (Westphalia) in 1648 the Scheldt was closed to Belgian vessels, and this arrangement was left unchanged by subsequent treaties. Joseph II attempted to secure the opening of the Scheldt but he failed in this as in so much else that he planned.

When the French Revolutionary War broke out in 1792 one of its first results was that the Austrians were driven out of Belgium. The French decreed the annexation of Belgium and the opening of the Scheldt, which immediately led to war with Great Britain. The Belgians welcomed the French as their deliverers, but their enthusiasm cooled perceptibly when the revolutionary principles that had been adopted in France were put into practice in Belgium. By the treaty of Campo Formio in 1797 Belgium was ceded by Austria to France, an arrangement which was confirmed in 1801 by the treaty of Lunéville.

After the fall of Napoleon when the diplomats at Vienna had to reconstruct the map of Europe Austria showed no desire to regain her distant possessions in the Netherlands but sought rather to expand southwards by the annexation of the Venetian territories. It was decided therefore to join Holland and Belgium as a barrier against French aggression and thus to form a Kingdom of the Netherlands over which William Frederick, a prince of the house of Orange should be made king. While the Congress was still sitting at Vienna in 1815 Napoleon returned to France from Elba. The powers declared him to be a public enemy. The British and Prussian armies entered Belgium. At Ligny Napoleon defeated the Prussians but the British at Waterloo checked the advance of Napoleon on Brussels, and when the Prussian army arrived the defeat became a rout. Thus the final overthrow of Napoleon took place on the soil of Belgium. Men little

thought then that Prussia was to attempt to play the part that France under Napoleon had played, and that before the centenary of Waterloo was reached French and British would be allied to resist Prussian military despotism. We may hope that before that centenary arrives Prussia may meet with the fate of Napoleon.

The union of Belgium and Holland did not prove a happy one, and the history of the short-lived Kingdom of the Netherlands shows that for the making of a nation other factors besides similarity of race are needed. The union might have been successful in the 16th century but much had happened since then, and the Dutch and the Belgians had become very unlike. In particular while the Dutch were mostly Protestants, the Belgians were almost bigotedly Roman Catholic, and the economic interests of the two countries also were divergent. Under the union Belgium, it is true, enjoyed financial and commercial prosperity, partly owing to the opening of the Scheldt, but the Belgians felt that they were not treated fairly by the Dutch and general dissatisfaction prevailed. The outbreak of the Revolution of July 1830 in Paris set the example to the Belgians. A popular rising took place in Brussels which soon spread to other towns. The Dutch Government handled the outbreak very injudiciously, neither stamping it out by force nor making the necessary concessions. The Prince of Orange, the heir apparent, came to Brussels, and was convinced that there must be separate administrations for Holland and Belgium a division which the Dutch also were quite willing to have. Unfortunately the king was opposed to the plan. Delays took place and fighting began, A Provisional Government was formed at Brussels and Belgium was declared to be a separate independent state. Concessions were now offered, but it was too late. A National Congress was assembled and the Dutch were driven out of all the Belgian towns except Antwerp.

As the Kingdom of the Netherlands had been a creation of the Great Powers the king appealed to them, and a Convention of their representatives met at London in November 1830, which at once called upon Holland and Belgium to cease fighting. The National Congress at Brussels now decided that Belgium was to be an independent country, that its constitution was to be that of a limited monarchy, and that the monarch must not be a member of the house of Orange-Nassau. Many of the Belgians would have liked a republic, some of the liberals would have preferred to be rejoined to France; but neither of these proposals would have been acceptable to the Powers. In December 1830 the Convention in London decreed the dissolution of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. The Congress then proceeded to elect a king. Their choice fell at first on the Duc de Nemours, the second son of Louis Phillippe the King of the French, but the other powers did not like this choice and the Duc declined the Crown. In his place the Convention then chose Leopold of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, the widower of the Princess Charlotte the only daughter of George IV, and an uncle of the future Queen Victoria. The choice was an excellent one, for Leopold was a very different kind of person from his son of the same name, the late King Leopold. He was highly respected, and he played an important part in European politics till his death in 1865. Though a Protestant he married a daughter of Louis Philippe and thus let the Roman Catholics see that he would not interfere with their religion.

Though the independence of Belgium was thus established there was much difficulty in adjusting matters between the two halves of the late Kingdom of the Netherlands. Leopold had hardly seated himself on his throne when news came that the Dutch had invaded Belgium

The Belgians taken by surprise were completely defeated but a French army advanced to their aid and the Dutch were compelled to retire. The points in dispute were the future of Luxemburg and the division of the national debt. The Powers in November 1831 drew up an agreement settling the disputed points and declaring that Belgium "shall form an independent and perfectly neutral state." It also declared the Scheldt open to the commerce of both Holland and Belgium. The Dutch refused to accept the proposed conditions and to give up Antwerp. Britain and France then took action. Their fleets appeared in the Scheldt and blockaded the Dutch coast while a French army besieged Antwerp. Though Antwerp surrendered in December 1832 and was handed over to Belgium, Holland still refused to accept the conditions and continued to refuse till 1839 when at last a final arrangement was made. The Grand-Duchy of Luxemburg was divided, half going to Belgium and half to the King of Holland, while Holland received part of Limburg. Belgium was unwilling to accept the proposed arrangement but the Powers compelled her to do so.

Since 1839 the history of Belgium has been one of ever growing prosperity. It has become a great manufacturing country and Antwerp has once again become one of the great ports of Europe. Its population is the densest of any country in Europe, and has increased in the course of a century from about three millions to about eight millions. Comparatively recently it has become the owner of a large colony in Central Africa, for the Congo Free State, the inhabitants of which were so shamefully treated by the employees of King Leopold its owner, fortunately passed out of the hands of the all too notorious King of Belgium into the possession of Belgium itself.

The schemes of Napoleon III and Bismarck at one time slightly endangered the independence of Belgium. Bismarck apparently suggested to Napoleon that as compensation for the expansion of Prussia, France might take Belgium. Napoleon, who in his own way was as unscrupulous as Bismarck, fell into the trap. It was a clever suggestion of Bismarck's for he of course knew that an attack on Belgium by France would be resented in Britain. Ultimately Bismarck found himself strong enough to refuse any compensation to France, but he took care to keep the proposals that he had asked Napoleon to submit to him, and in 1870 published them to alienate British sympathy from France. During the Franco-German War, as has been mentioned, British support secured the preservation of the neutrality of Belgium and the inviolability of her territory.

In the struggle which is now being waged Belgium has been treated by Germany with unscrupulous perfidy and calculated brutality. Belgium has experienced nothing like the treatment she is now enduring since the days of the Duke of Alva. The burning of Louvain will be ranked by future historians with that other German exploit, the sack of Magdeburg. We may hope that when the day of reckoning comes the Allies will seek, so far as they can, to make up to Belgium for the losses she has had to suffer in her noble struggle in defence of the right of a small nation to exist in Europe as a free and independent State.

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THE DEVASTATION OF BELGIUM.

BY MR. YAKUB HASAN.

THANKS to German military cult and "culture", the devastation of Belgium is complete. Whatever may be the ultimate result of the war, whichever form of international re-adjustments it may lead to, the Belgium of yesterday is now only a thing of memory. Prosperity may smile on it again, industry may revive, population may replenish, wealth may reflow, cities may regain their splendour, arts and learning may thrive, independence and integrity may recover, the nation may be re-habilitated, but the treasures of art, stores of knowledge, monuments of glory, creations of the best and noblest minds and precious accumulations of the generations gone by have disappeared for ever. The Belgium of the mediæval ages, the Belgium of the nineteenth century is no more, and even for the records of its past achievements the student of the future will have to turn to the other nations' museums and libraries, for her own records have been devoured by the German flames.

To record the process of devastation, to trace the deadly march of events from town to town, from nook to nook and corner to corner of that ill-fated country is most painful to one who had not long ago revelled in its beauty, gloried in its valuable possessions and was thrilled with admiration for its geniuses. The story, however, has to be told, and the mournful offering at the grave of that fair maiden of land and sea had better be made on the anniversary of the day Belgium was invaded.

A glance at the map of Belgium will show that two railway lines run almost parallel from the German frontier in the east towards the sea on the west. As the northern line passes through Maastracht, the capital of the Dutch Limburg, the German passage was barred there and they had to take the southern line on which are situated east to west Liege, Louvain, Brussels, Termonde, Alost, Ghent, Bruges and Ostend. Brussels is connected with Antwerp in the north by a cross-line which passes through Mechlin. Namur, Charleroi and Mons are on the southern base of a triangle, the apex of which is Brussels, and on the south of Namur is Dinant.

The Germans crossed the border line at 20 minutes to nine on the morning of the *4th August*, in three columns at Gemmenich, Henrichapelle and Dolhein. A great mass of German infantry advanced in the direction of Vise, a few miles from the Dutch frontier, then occupied the houses there and opened fire on the right bank of the Meuse. The Belgians defending the left bank prevented the construction of a pontoon bridge. Sharp cavalry engagements also occurred, the Belgians having the advantage because of the Liege Forts. The Belgians blew up villages, churches and other buildings which were situated in the line of fire of the forts of Liege.

LIEGE.

This town is picturesquely situated among hills and cultivated gardens. The river Meuse divides it into two, the public buildings and shops are on the left bank (as seen in the illustration), the factories and the houses of working class are on the right. The German bombardment of the town is not the first that it has suffered. Ever since its foundation in the sixth century it has been repeatedly attacked. In 1468, after slaying 52,000 of the inhabitants and driving the rest into the Forest of the Ardennes, Charles the Bold set fire to the city which burnt for seven weeks till everything but the churches and convents were razed to the ground. Phœnix-like, it rose to greater strength and prosperity after its misfortunes and became one of the most prosperous cities of Europe.

Nothing could be more stubborn and courageous than the resistance offered by the Belgians at Liege. German assaults on the forts (twelve in number) which surround Liege in a circle, were repulsed with heavy losses to the invaders. The Germans were forced to ask for an armistice of 24 hours on the 7th of August which was refused and on the 9th the Germans were said to be retreating. But they renewed their attack on the following day with greater numbers and though some of the forts continued to resist for a long time thereafter, the Germans managed to force an entry into the town and got control of the roads and railways, which was their main objective.

The defence of Liege will ever remain a memorable incident of this war, where a handful of Belgians unassisted by their allies faced an enemy many times their number and displayed indomit-

able courage under the most disheartening circumstances. The name of General Leman will go down to posterity as the hero who, though by profession a professor of Mathematics at the Military Academy, displayed a military genius of an extraordinary kind in his first work as a practical soldier, and kept at bay an overwhelming army for days together. The Germans could not pay a better compliment to the gallant defender than by restoring to him the sword which he had so bravely used against them.

BATTLE OF HAELEN.

After forcing their passage through Liege the German forces encountered the Belgian trenches before Haelen on 14th August. The German artillery compelled the Belgians to retire on the town which was extensively damaged. This was a determined attempt by the German cavalry to crush the Belgian left wing.

The artillery opened fire at 11 o'clock. The Germans scarcely sought shelter but let the Belgian shells plough through them at two thousand metres. The cavalry encounters developed in the early afternoon. The Belgians charged the Germans across broken ground, which compelled them to split into groups, resulting in hand-to-hand encounters.

The Germans, thinking only of their objective, endeavoured to over-ride the Belgians by sheer weight but by six o'clock they were obliged to withdraw along the rivers Velpe and Gette. The victory for the Belgians was only shortlived, for on the following days the Germans renewed their attack and drove the Belgians before them.

AERSCHOT.

An action was fought at Aerschot on the 15th August where Belgians are said to have "fought like demons," but the German infantry and guns outnumbered theirs.

DIEST.

Diest was bombarded on the 19th and the following day the Germans made an unopposed entry into Brussels from which the capital was previously removed to Antwerp.

BRUSSELS.

Brussels is a "Miniature Paris." In many places the resemblance between them is great. As in Paris, the old fortifications once surrounding the town have been demolished, and magnificent boulevards have been laid out on their sites. The want of fortifications and consequently the surrender without resistance has at least saved the town from being the target of the German guns. All the beautiful public buildings and monuments are situated on an elevated plane in the upper town which the Palace of Justice dominates (as seen in the illustration). The fashionable world resides there, while the merchants and tradespeople occupy the lower town, which is the older of the two. In the latter is the Grand Place, one of the finest squares in Europe. The *Hotel de Ville*, one of the finest specimens of Gothic Architecture (1402-1454), the *Maison de Roi* (built in the 16th century), the Hall of the Painters, the Hall of the Tailors, the Hall of the Boatmen, the Hall of the Archers and several other Guild Houses all of which surround this Square, are the civic palaces for which Brussels is specially noted. The guilds, of which these buildings are valuable monuments, were the pioneers of trade and industrial organisations in Europe, and were the centre of Belgian activity. The Square is associated with all that is romantic in Belgian history. In it knightly tournaments have alternated with royal pageantry, and priestly pomp with the processions of the trade guilds.

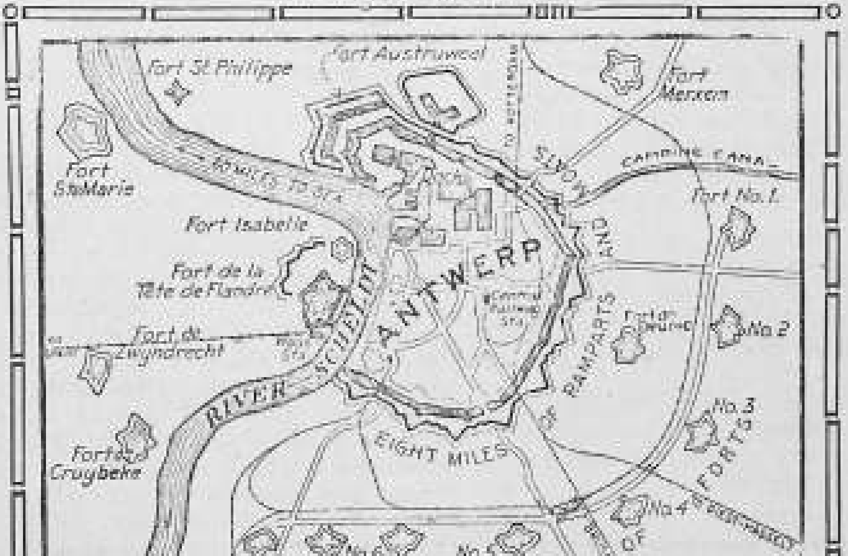
Brussels is as rich in arts as in industries. The Royal Library contains 300,000 books, of which over 20,000 are rare manuscripts, and 50,000 engravings, and the Palace of the Fine Arts has a very large collection of old pictures representing the masterpieces of the Flemish, Italian, Spanish and Dutch Schools of the 15th to the 17th Century.

DINANT.

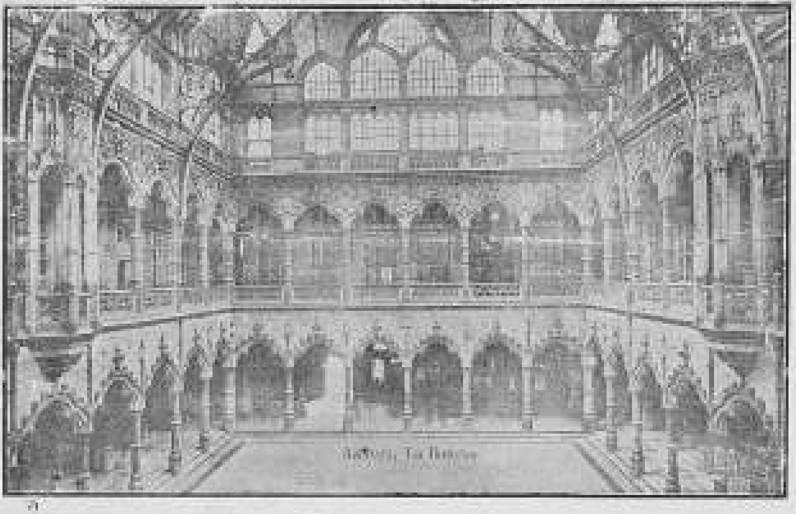
After occupying Brussels the Germans spread in all directions, occupying town after town and clearing the way for their march on Paris. They went as far south as Dinant which is only 10 miles from the French frontier. They encountered the French here for the first time on the 15th August and the fight was particularly severe. About 10 o'clock the Germans took the crest of the cliffs across the river and soon took the citadel from which they sent down a veritable hail of lead on the defenders below. French reinforcements arrived by noon and shots from French field artillery began to boom, one of which cut the German flag on the citadel. Another new French regiment arrived at the dusk but after the place was evacuated by the Germans who had disappeared leaving nothing but dead behind. Dinant was, however, sacked on the 8th September two weeks after the fall of Namur.

This historic city is a picturesque one overhung by limestone cliffs crowned with a fortress and the Meuse running close by. It has been demolished and burnt, first by Philip, Duke of Burgundy,

ANTWERP—PANORAMA.

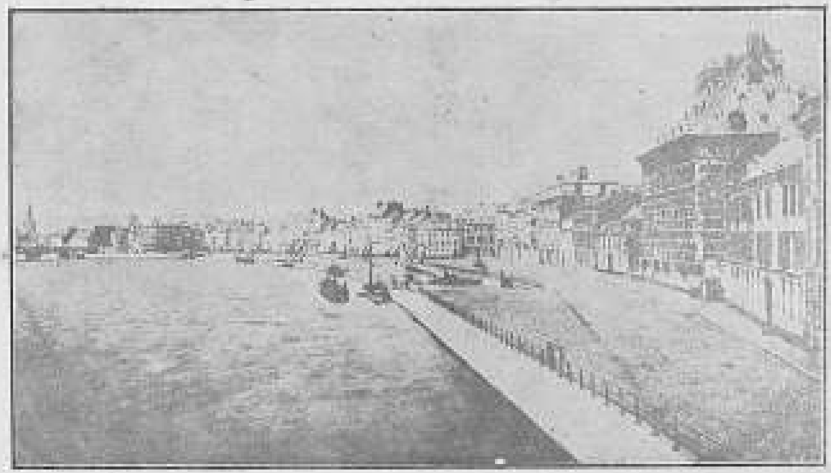


ANTWERP AND ITS FORTIFICATIONS.

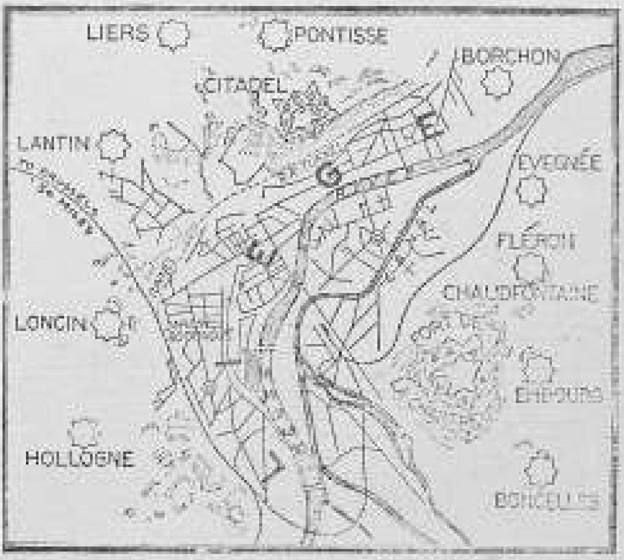


ANTWERP— THE EXCHANGE.

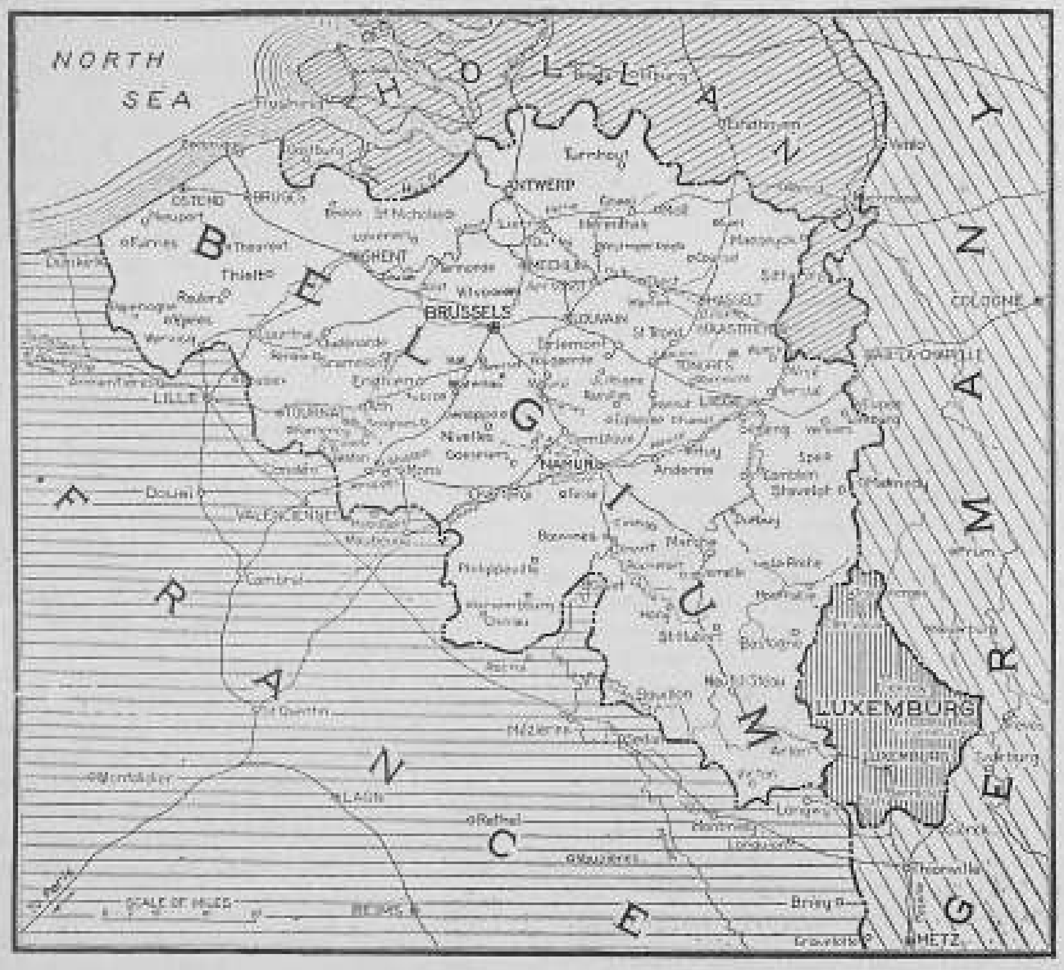
BRUSSELS—GRAND PLACE.



LIEGE—THE RIVER FRONT.



LIEGE AND HER FORTS.



BELGIUM—THE FIRST BATTLE-FIELD.

in 1466 and the second time by the French in 1554 under Duc de Nevers.

NAMUR.

The next place of importance to fall was Namur on 24th August. It is one of the three towns which Brialmont had fortified against such an attack as the present. Like Liege, Namur, the Sheffield of Belgium, possessed a ring of nine forts armed with 350 guns of the latest pattern and they were garrisoned by an army not less numerous than that of Liege. It was expected that Namur would hold out at least for a fortnight and its inexplicable fall after a not very vigorous attack upset the calculations of the allies who were then opposing the Germans along a line that extended from Namur to Mons passing through Charleroi in the centre.

MONS.

The British troops were stationed on the French left at Mons. The Prussians fought with reckless bravery, hurling themselves again and again at the British lines which repelled them every time with frightful slaughter. The finest troops of the German army had been selected for the attack against the British lines but regiment after regiment was thrown back with appalling losses. From Saturday morning to Monday night, the British maintained their ground. The strategy of war, however, made it imperative that the forces of the Allies should retreat all along the line, from the British position at Mons and the French position at Charleroi to a new frontier formed on the French soil from Cambrai to Meziers. So by the 26th August, *i.e.*, 22 days after the German entry into Belgium, the battle was carried beyond that country into the French territory.

But the subjugation of Belgium was not, however, complete and at the time the Germans were carrying everything before them in France, they were not inactive in Belgium. They were engaged in putting down insurrections at some places and striking terror into the hearts of people at others. The tale of atrocities committed make a gruesome record discreditable to a nation that calls itself civilized.

LOUVAIN.

Louvain was the chief victim of German rapacity. This ancient town has been more remarkable for its civil activity than for its militarism. The fight was always between the repressive aristocracy and the rising democracy. The latter were so exasperated in 1382 that they threw Duke Wenceslas and seventeen of his Magistrates and Councillors from the windows of the Hotel de Ville (Town Hall). The stern revenge which followed resulted in the exile of a large number of weavers to England. The textile industry of England owes not a little to these exiles who carried their craft with them to the country of their adoption. The Civil War of the 16th Century which destroyed 3,300 houses and the plague of 1578 which carried away not less than 44,000 affected the town very adversely.

The appropriation of the ancient Halle des Drapiers (the Weavers' Hall) built in 1317 as a warehouse for the Cloth-makers' Guild, to the service of the University is an index to the transformation which the town had undergone since the expulsion of the weavers. In its prime in 1696 the University boasted of the possession of forty-six colleges and six thousand students. Knowledge and letters have found many other seminaries since then, and Louvain, no longer being the sole centre of education and learning, possessed before the German invasion twenty colleges and 1,500 students and a library consisting of 150,000 volumes and 400 manuscripts, among the latter the most interesting for India being the old editions of ancient Persian dialects and Zoroastrian literature.

The Hotel de Ville (see illustration) was the most elaborately ornamented Gothic building of its class in the world and was erected in 1448-63, by the celebrated architect of Louvain, Mathew Layers.

This ancient and beautiful town of 45,000 people, with its wonderful Hotel de Ville, the University with its priceless library, have been entirely destroyed by one of the Kaiser's commanders in a moment of passion. "In destroying Louvain German troops have committed a crime for which there can be no atonement, and humanity has suffered a loss which can never be repaired."

MECHLIN.

Mechlin or Malines which was attacked on the 25th August and again bombarded on the 4th and 5th September, is only fourteen miles from Antwerp. Unlike Antwerp and Brussels which have lost their antique character and look modern in every sense, Mechlin still retained its quaint architectural features. Its principal edifices are its cathedral, an ancient Gothic structure, with a massive square tower 348 feet high; the church of Notre Dame, built on the model of the cathedral; the church of St. Peter and St. Paul, with

an altar regarded as a masterpiece of wood-carving, and the Archbishop's palace. The cathedral is very much damaged by the German shells and the town very nearly destroyed. Mechlin has always been famous like Brussels, Valenciennes, and Venice for its beautiful laces which form its principal industry.

SIEGE OF ANTWERP.

Antwerp was considered to be one of the strongest fortresses in Europe. The city was enclosed on three sides by the *enciente* of 1859, the western side being flanked by the river Scheldt. Outside this *enciente* about 3,500 yards away from it ran a partial ring of forts at regular intervals of 2,200 yards. Then again a much larger circle of the neweset type of forts enclosed an immense area all round the town. It had further means of defence in the dykes, the opening of which inundated a vast area as the Germans found to their great cost.

But alas! all these fortifications and protective works and plans were of no avail, the onslaught of the enemy was so terrible and so overwhelming were their numbers. Being previously warned by German aeroplane many refugees left Antwerp and the Belgian Government was transferred to Ostend. After the costly failure of the attempts to cross the Scheldt, the German forced the passage of the river Nethe, 12 miles to the south-east of Antwerp. The outer ring of forts was broken through at this point by a strong German attack before they crossed the river.

The retention of Antwerp became hopeless and the General wisely decided upon a retreat. Some 20,000 Belgians and about half the British brigades of blue jackets and mariners, who had here for the first time joined hands with the Belgians, managed to reach Ostend safely, the rest (about 35,000) took refuge in Holland where they were interned.

The town that has now come into German possession is a fine one and with its beautiful architecture, shaded boulevards, shop-lined thoroughfares, artistic fountains, public monuments, parks, gardens and public resorts, it can hold its own against any modern town in Europe; while its art treasures give it a peculiar distinction. It is the birth-place of some of the greatest painters of the world and its most distinguished son Reubens has imparted to it a great glory by his pictures of world-wide fame. His masterpiece, "The Descent from the Cross," placed in the Cathedral is alone worth all the expense and trouble of a journey from the antipodes to see it. The cathedral itself is a noble example of Gothic architecture; Napoleon rightly compared its sculptured tracery to Mechlin lace, and Charles V. was so impressed with the delicacy of its carving that he said it deserved to be kept in a glass case.

The most remarkable institution in Antwerp is the Bourse or Exchange. It is the mother of the commercial exchanges of Europe and was first founded in 1531. As a commercial city Antwerp had no equal in the time of Charles V. when 5,000 merchants met in this very Exchange and 2,500 ships lay anchored in the river close by. Merchant vessels from Spain, Portugal, France, and England brought their precious loads to this port and carried away from it the merchandise that accumulated there from the interior of the continent. It was the market-place of Europe, and nothing can give a better idea of the extent and importance of the commerce of Antwerp than the quays and docks that extend for several miles and are considered to be the finest in the world.

Like all other cities of Belgium, Antwerp had its vicissitudes. The greatest blow was dealt to it in 1585 when it was captured by the Spaniards who closed the Scheldt in 1648. It remained so closed for a century and a half and all its trade left it till the French took Antwerp in 1794. Ever since in spite of a few set-backs, the star of Antwerp has been in the ascendant till after becoming one of the most thriving cities in the world it has now again fallen on evil days.

Ghent, Bruges and Ostend soon shared at the hands of Germans the fate of Antwerp and the battle was carried to the neighbourhood of Dixmude and Ypres (pronounced *eepr'*). Both the contesting parties are strongly entrenched there and they are so well matched in number, arms and equipment that neither of them could make a headway against the other. The German march to Calais has, however, been successfully checked at Ypres where the British put forth their best endeavours and displayed the finest military genius. The part played by the Indian army in these operations has gained the admiration of the whole world to our greatest pride. Operations are still proceeding in this part of Flanders, which, as far as the Belgian army is concerned, are directed by King Albert himself, whose Government has its headquarters for the time being on the hospitable soil of France.

BELGIUM: THE COUNTRY AND THE PEOPLE.

COMPILED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.

BELGIUM is an independent, constitutional and neutral State occupying an important position in north-west Europe. It was formerly part of the low countries or Netherlands. By the constitution of 1831, following on the secession from the Netherlands in 1830, Belgium was declared to be a constitutional and hereditary Monarchy. Her neutrality is guaranteed under the treaties of London, 1831 and 1839, by Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, and Russia. The name Belgium came into general use only with the foundation of the modern kingdom in 1830.

PHYSICAL FEATURES.

Belgium lies between 49°30′ and 51°30′ N. and 2°32′ and 6°7′ E. and on the land side is bounded by Holland on the N. and N. E., by Russia and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg on the E. and S. E. and by France on the S. Its land frontiers measure 793 m. divided as follows: with Holland 269 m., with Prussia 60 m., with the Grand Duchy 80 m., and with France 384 m. In addition, it has a sea-coast of 42 m.

While the greater part of Western and Northern Belgium is devoid of the picturesque, the Ardennes and the Fagnes districts and Liege contain much pleasant and some romantic scenery. The principal charm of this region is derived from its fine and extensive woods, of which that called St. Hubert is the best known. There are no lakes in Belgium, but otherwise it is exceedingly well-watered, being traversed by the Meuse for the greater part of its course, as well as by the Scheldt and the Sambre. The numerous affluents of these rivers provide a system of waterways almost unique in Europe. The canals of Belgium are scarcely less numerous or important than those of Holland. But the most striking feature in Belgium, where so much is modern, utilitarian, and ugly, is found in the older cities with their relics of medieval greatness, and their record of ancient fame. These, in their order of interest, are Bruges, Antwerp, Louvain, Brussels, Ghent, Ypres, Courtrai, Tournai, Furnes, Oudenarde, and Liege. It is to them rather than to the sylvan scenes of the Ardennes that travellers and tourists flock.

AREA.

The area comprises about 11,373 English sq. m. and the total population in 1911 was 7,423,784. The emigration of Belgians from their country is small and reveals little variation. In 1900, 13,492 emigrated, and in 1904, the total rose only to 14,752.

LANGUAGES.

With regard to the languages spoken by the people of Belgium, the following is the return for the Census of 1900.

French only	2,574,005
Flemish only	2,882,006
German only	28,314
French and Flemish	801,587
French and German	66,447
Flemish and German	7,238
The three languages	42,889

GOVERNMENT.

The Belgian Constitution was published on the 7th of February 1831, and the modifications introduced into it subsequently, apart from the composition of the electorate, have been few and

unimportant. The constitution stipulates for "freedom of conscience, of education, of the press, and also of the sight of meeting," but the Sovereign must be a Member of the Church of Rome. The Government is to consist of the King, the Senate, and the Chamber of Representatives. The functions of the King are those that appertain everywhere to the Sovereign of a constitutional state. He is the head of the army and has the exclusive right of dissolving the Chambers as preliminary to an appeal to the country.

The principle of manhood suffrage with compulsory voting prevails, tempered by the plural vote and proportional representation of minorities, based upon a somewhat intricate system. Additional votes are given on certain conditions, but no citizen can have more than three votes. From this electorate, both Houses of the Legislature are chosen, save for those Senators who are elected indirectly. The Senate of 120 members is elected for 8 years. The number of members elected directly is equal to half the number of deputies. The indirectly elected Senators are chosen by the provincial Councils. The *Deputies* are elected for four years, in the proportion of 1 to every 40,000 inhabitants, and number 186. One half retire every two years. Senators must be 40, and deputies 25 years of age. Each deputy receives 4000 fr. yearly, and travels free. There is no payment or other privilege, except a pass on the State railways, attached to the rank of Senator.

The King has one right which other constitutional rulers do not possess. He can initiate proposals for new laws. He is also charged with the executive power, which he delegates to a Cabinet composed of ministers chosen from the party representing the majority in the chamber. The ministers represent departments for finance, foreign affairs, colonies, justice, the interior, science and art, war, railways, post and telegraphs, agriculture, public works, and industry and labour. The minister for war is generally a soldier, the others are civilians. Ministers may be members of either chamber and enjoy the privilege of being allowed to speak in both. Sometimes one minister will hold several portfolios at the same time, but such cases are rare.

The kingdom is divided into nine provinces, which are sub-divided into 342 cantons and 2623 communes. Local Government is carried on by 9 provincial and 2,627 Communal Councils.

RELIGION.

The constitution provides for absolute liberty of conscience and there is no state religion, but the people are almost to a man Roman Catholics. It is computed that there are 10,000 Protestants, and 5,000 Jews and that all the rest are Catholics. The hierarchy of the Church of Rome in Belgium is composed of the Archbishop of Malines and the Bishops of Liege, Ghent, Bruges, Tournai and Namur. The Archbishop receives £800 and the Bishops £600 apiece from the State yearly. The pay of the village *curé* averages £80 a year and a house. Besides the regular clergy, there are the members of the numerous monastic and conventual houses established in Belgium. They are engaged principally in educational and eleemosynary work, and the development in such institutions is considerable.

EDUCATION.

Education is compulsory by law, and is free for those who cannot pay for it. In the primary schools instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, history, and geography is obligatory. In 1904, there were 7092 infant schools with 859,436 pupils of both sexes. Of these 807,383 did not pay. Primary education is supposed to continue till the age of fourteen, but in practice it stops at twelve for all who do not intend to pass through the middle schools. The control of the State comes in to the extent of providing district inspectors who visit the schools once a year, and hold a meeting of the teachers in their district, once a quarter. The expenditure

of the State on education amounts to about a million sterling. In 1900, 31·94 per cent. of the total population was illiterate.

Higher instruction is given at the universities and in the schools attached thereto. Those at Ghent and Liege are state universities; the two others at Brussels and Louvain are free. At Louvain alone is there a faculty of theology. The number of students in 1904-05 were:—Ghent 899, Liege 1983, Brussels 1082, and Louvain 2134 or a grand total of 6098. Liege is especially famed for the technical schools attached to it. There are also a large number of state aided schools for special purposes *e.g.* for education in the arts, the Royal Academy of Fine Art at Antwerp. For commercial and professional education, there are 181 schools. Among the numerous learned societies may be mentioned the Belgian Royal Academy founded in 1769 and revived in 1818. For the encouragement of research and literary style the Government awards periodical prizes which are very keenly contested.

JUSTICE.

The administration of Justice is very fully organised, and in the Code Belge, the Belgians claim that they possess an almost perfect statute-book. There is a peculiar court here which never tries a case itself except when a Minister of State is the accused, but which examines every judgment to see if it is in strict accord with the Code, and where it is not, the verdict or decision is simply annulled. Judges can only be removed by the unanimous vote of their brother judges. Capital punishment is retained on the statute but is never enforced.

FINANCE.

The budget is submitted to the Chambers by the Minister of Finance and passed by them. The revenue and expenditure in 1903 were 632,416,810 francs and 627,975,568 francs, respectively. The revenue is made up from taxes, including customs and tolls, &c. The principal items of expenditure are service of debt, railways, war and public instruction. The total national debt is about 126 millions sterling which requires for interest, sinking fund and service about 5¼ millions sterling annually.

ARMY.

The army has been re-organised on the basis of personal service under the law valid on December 14, 1909 and was to be further re-organised under a law of June 19, 1913. The new establishment is 57,886 men on a peace-footing, and 340,000 on a war-footing, and the effective, under compulsion, is to be up to the establishment. The system of national defence rests as before upon the Meuse fortresses, Namur and Liege, and the great fortress of Antwerp. The garrisons of these on a war footing will be 130,000 in all and the field army of operations 170,000. Service is for 15 to 24 months with the colours, followed by the remainder of 8 years on unlimited furlough, with occasional short repetition courses; after which five years are passed in the reserve. All able-bodied men not otherwise accounted for are enrolled in the *Garde Civique* which is chiefly for the maintenance of public order and is under the Minister of the Interior in peace time. This numbers approximately 45,000 men reckoned as "active," and 100,000 "non-active."

TRADE.

In the relative magnitude of the annual value of its commerce, Belgium stands sixth among the nations of the world. The principal imports are food supplies, raw material, and minerals. The exports of greatest value are textiles, lace, coal, glass, machinery, railway material and fire-arms.

SHIPPING.

Belgium has no state navy. The state, however, possesses a certain number of steamers. In 1904, they numbered sixty-five of 99,893 tons. These steamers are chiefly employed on the passenger route between Ostend and Dover.

COMMUNICATIONS.

The internal communications of Belgium of every kind are excellent. There are 2904 miles of railway in operation, of which 2675 are owned and worked by the State. The total length of the canals and navigable waterways of the country is 1350 miles, 85 per cent. of which are under the direct control of the state, and the cheap transport thus rendered possible gives to all industries an incalculable advantage.

MISCELLANEOUS.

There are three newspapers and three dailies which only cost less than $\frac{1}{5}$ of a penny. The Prime Minister and Minister of War is M.de. Broqueville. The Minister in London is Count de Lalaing. The British Minister at Brussels is the Hon. Sir Francis Hyde Villier, G.C.V.O., K.C.M.G.

THE BELGIAN CONGO.

The transfer of the Congo State from the late King Leopold to the Belgian Government was formally recognised by all the great powers including Great Britain in 1913. The capital is Boma and there is a Governor-General there with a Local Government. Among the chief exports are rubber and ivory. The bulk of the trade is with Belgium. The area is estimated at 900,000 sq. miles.

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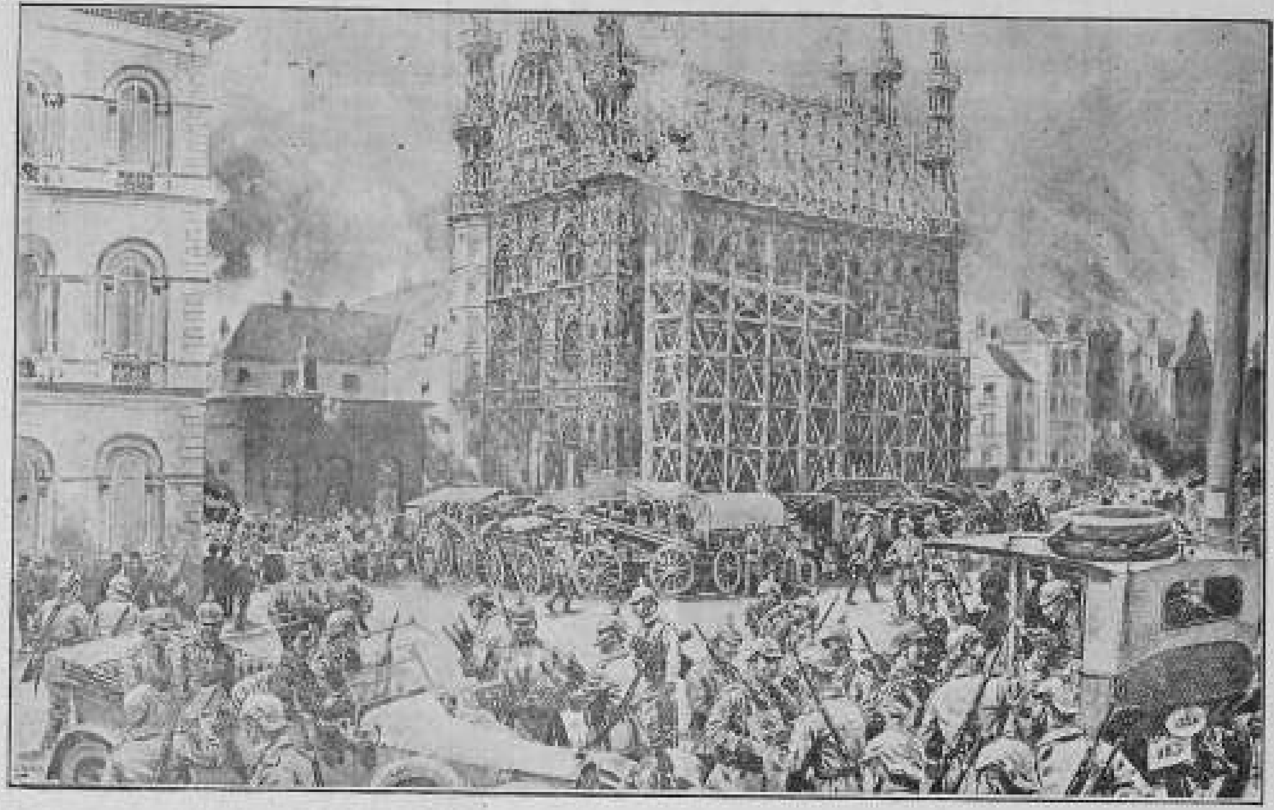

The one pause in the German Army's Career of Vandalism: Louvain's famous Town Hall.

THE KING AND QUEEN OF BELGIUM.

ALBERT, KING OF THE BELGIANS.

The Duties of Neutrals and the Rights of Belligerents in time of War.*

BY MR. C. E. ODGERS, M.A., B. C. L.

Administrator-General, Madras, and Late Vice-Principal, Law College.

I.—THE DUTIES OF NEUTRALS.

THE Law of Neutrality is of comparatively recent growth and it is only within the last hundred years that it has attained to anything like certainty or uniformity. Even now, by the very nature of the case, many of the doctrines of International Law exist rather in theory than in practice. In taking a rapid survey of the duties of neutrals, the first thing to remark is this: neutrals, are not affected, or ought not to be affected, with any special duties towards the belligerents until the outbreak of war has been notified to them. Strictly, the giving of such a notification is merely an act of courtesy on the part of the belligerents or either of them, but now-a-days, when the probability is that many nations will have trading and other relations with at least one of the belligerents, the rule of courtesy may perhaps be said to be practically a rule of law, and no court would hold at the present time that a neutral was restricted in any of its dealings with a belligerent who had omitted to notify a state of war as existing between itself and another state.

I. The first division of our subject is concerned with the duties of a neutral state with regard to its own conduct *as a state.*

These duties were almost entirely undefined till the middle of the 18th century when the great text writers appeared: Bynkershoek (1737), Wolff (1749); and Vattel (1758). The war between Russia and Sweden which broke out in 1788 brought into prominence several important questions under this head. Denmark in the course of this war lent troops to Russia in pursuance of a previous treaty. Sweden protested, but the authorities of the period seemed to be by no means decided that there was anything in this to impugn the neutrality of Denmark. Bynkershoek distinctly says that in his opinion the purchase of soldiers in a friendly state is as lawful as the purchase of warlike materials. Again, the authorities were not prepared to hold that the equipment of cruisers by a neutral power to aid one of the belligerents was illegal, though of course now it would be a *casus belli.* Such equipment was, however, frequently restrained by treaty. In 1793, however, the law was settled on its present basis. During the war between France and Great Britain, M. Gennet, the French Minister accredited to the United States, issued commissions in America to certain private citizens who proceeded to fit out privateers to interfere with British trade. The English Minister thereupon protested and the Government of the United States insisted that "it was the right of every nation to prohibit acts of sovereignty from being exercised within its limits by another nation, and the duty of a neutral (such as the United States was at the time) to prohibit such as would injure either of the belligerents." The issue of these military commissions by the agent of another power was also held to be an infringement of the sovereignty of the United States. In the same year, a citizen of the United States named Henfield was indicted for a breach of the neutrality laws of the United States in that he had taken service with the French and had brought in a British ship to Philadelphia after her capture by the French. So, by the end of the 18th century, the following points were settled and adopted, at least by the United States, which has in many respects shown the most advanced policy in questions of International Law: (i) A neutral state is bound not to commit any act which would favour one belligerent to the detriment of the other. (ii) Belligerents on the other hand are bound to respect the sovereignty of neutrals. (iii) Neutral states are bound to prevent other Governments or private persons from using the territory and resources of the neutral state for belligerent purpopes. It is of course legitimate for a neutral state to sell ships of war to a belligerent provided the transaction is completed before the outbreak of hostilities, but the British Government was bound to prevent the despatch from England of the two Japanese battleships in the recent Russo-Japanese war which were being constructed in England at the time that war broke out.

A neutral cannot assist a belligerent with troops even though she has bound herself to do so by a treaty made previous to the outbreak of

* This contribution appeared in the March and April issues of the *Indian Review* in 1904 after the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War. It has since been revised by the author at the request of the Editor. [*Ed. I.R.*]

war. One eminent authority, however, thinks this is still legal and calls it "qualified neutrality." It is exceedingly improbable that this will be allowed in the future and it has in fact not been attempted since the protest of Sweden in 1788 mentioned above. Another point which often arises is this:—Is a neutral power allowed to lend money to a belligerent? Many authorities reply in the negative, but the fundamental principle of the law is that a neutral is allowed to carry on its trade with a belligerent just as it did in time of peace. Nobody can doubt that money is an article of commerce just as much as cloth or coal. Is a neutral then to be debarred from dealing in money when it is allowed to deal with the belligerents in other articles? The answer seems to be,—not as long as there is real trading in money; that is to say, a commercial loan on which interest is to be paid may be negotiated between a neutral and a belligerent, but a *present* of money cannot be made by a neutral state to one at war with a state friendly to the neutral, and a voluntary subscription for the use of a belligerent contributed by the subjects of a neutral state, if carried to any considerable extent, might be well regarded as an act of hostility on the part of the neutral government which permitted it. The question last arose in 1873 when subscriptions were being raised in England on behalf of Don Carlos, the pretender to the throne of Spain, and the law was in effect laid down as above.

Again, ought neutrals to sell munitions of war to a belligerent? The doctrine that neutral trade ought not to be interfered with by war probably does not extend to the protection of arms and ammunition sold by a neutral to a belligerent. Trade is not ordinarily a function of a government and the neutral state must know perfectly well that the latter intends to use them against a power friendly to the neutral and the *bona fides* of a neutral who finds such a time the only opportunity for disposing of her surplus stock of arms and ammunition to advantage may well be called in question. The rule seems to hold whether or not the ultimate destination of the warlike material is actually known. In 1825 Sweden offered ships to the Government of Spain, then engaged in war with Mexico. Spain refused to buy and the ships were then sold in England to a firm which, as it afterwards appeared, was acting on behalf of Mexico. The Swedish Government afterwards rescinded the sale on the protest of Spain. But during the Franco-Prussian war in 1870 large sales of arms etc., were made in New York to French agents apparently without protest. One cannot say that the duty of the neutral not to sell munitions of war to a belligerent is fixed, but it is not too much to say that it ought to be, and probably one day will be.

It is clearly the duty of a neutral State to prevent levies of troops from being made within the limits of its territory for service in forces of the belligerent; nor can letters of marque, as they are called, be issued, that is, authorities issued by one belligerent to subjects of another State to make reprisals on the other belligerent. But there is no duty on a neutral to prevent its subjects from abandoning its service or its nationality and taking service under one or other of the belligerent powers. It is just reported that Italians have enlisted in the Servian forces against Austria. It was said that in the Chinese Japanese War, some of the commanders of the ships of the former power were Scots, and a question was asked by Earl Spencer in the House of Lords on the 25th of February 1904 as to whether the Government had supplied naval officers to command certain cruisers which had been bought by the Japanese Government. The Earl of Selbourne, First Lord of the Admiralty, in his reply is reported to have said: "There is not a word of truth in this statement. Two gentlemen who had been officers in the navy were selected by the Japanese Government to command these cruisers. They were gentlemen over whom the Admiralty had no sort of control whatever, and they drew neither pay nor pension from the Government. They had, however, sometime ago voluntarily placed themselves on what is known as the Emergency List of ex-officers who are available for service in time of war. The moment the Admiralty learnt that these officers, over whom they had no control, who were on this Emergency List, had undertaken to command these cruisers, the Board decided to strike them off the Emergency List, and this was done before any kind of complaint was made, before the facts had become public, and simply because the Board of Admiralty thought it the wisest course to do that which would leave no room for misrepresentation." Again, may a neutral permit a belligerent to pass through his territory? Many writers of authority reply in the affirmative, provided the like privilege is accorded to the other belligerent also; but the balance of modern opinion is against this view and there has been no attempt to give effect to it since 1815, when Switzerland was

practically compelled to allow the allies passage through her territory on their way to invade France. Later, in 1870 Switzerland refused passage to the Alsatian army though without uniforms and unarmed and in the same year the attempt of Germany to get rid of her wounded by transporting them across Belgium was similarly refused. This case is especially interesting at this moment when Germany has been guilty of violating Belgian neutrality after having requested and been refused the right of using Belgian territory as a means of invading France.

Next we come to the important rights and duties of the neutral as to hostilities committed in its territory. The territory of a state extends three miles out to sea from its coast line; so the neutral has a right to insist that no hostilities *e. g.*, the capture of an enemy's ship, shall take place within that limit. Nor must a neutral territory be used as a base of operations by either belligerent. That is to say, neutral ports must not be used as a continual or habitual place from which to pursue operations against an enemy. The duties of a neutral with regard to this became prominent in 1872 in connexion with the Civil War in America. The "Shenandoah" a British ship was bought for the Confederacy and gradually transformed *outside* British territory into a ship of war. She put into Melbourne for repairs and was allowed to take in supplies and coal and also to enlist recruits. A complaint was made to Great Britain on the ground that the latter had reasonable cause to suspect that she was being fitted out in the first instance for the purpose of cruising against the United States; and that when she came into British territory again at Melbourne, she was not detained, but treated as a commissioned man-of-war and allowed to depart. There was also a complaint that she had made British territory a base of operations. The duties of a neutral with regard to this question are generally the subject of a proclamation of neutrality. Reference may be made to the proclamation made on the out-break of hostilities between Japan and Russia. By it no port or roadstead in British territory is to be made "a station or place of resort for any warlike purpose or for the purpose of obtaining any facilities for warlike equipment." Ships of war of either belligerent are also debarred from taking in any supplies "except provisions and such other things as may be requisite for the subsistence of her crew and except so much coal as may be sufficient" to carry her to her nearest port. No subsequent supply of coal is to be allowed for the same ship till the expiration of an interval of three months from her last supply within British waters. This statement of the law has found favour with most maritime nations of the present time and is generally adopted.

Is a neutral state responsible for a hostile expedition which may have, at all events in part, started from the neutral territory but which acquires its hostile character at some point *outside* that territory? One school of authority contends that the intention governs the case *i. e.*, if a ship, even in an innocent state, is *intended* to be used against a belligerent after being equipped elsewhere, she ought not to be allowed to leave the neutral port. This means in effect that a nation must be held responsible for acts beyond her control, for she has no authority to prohibit equipment or armament at a point outside her jurisdiction where the previous innocent act first assumes a noxious character. This hardly seems a reasonable view to take, and it is probable that in future a neutral will only be held responsible in such a case when she has allowed her territory to be fraudulently used for the purpose of equipping or arming ships or men against a friendly state. A neutral must dispense hospitality and relief to the wounded men or ships of a belligerent somewhat cautiously. It may entertain a beaten army, but should disarm it and detain it until the war is over. The neutral may naturally not heal the wounded and send them back to fight against the other belligerent again. The rule as to ships is not so strict: a vessel may enter and stay in a neutral harbour, it may take refuge in that if defeated, it may repair there and take in provisions and coal to the extent already indicated. But except in these respects a belligerent vessel ought not to leave a neutral port in a more efficient state to carry on war against the enemy than before she put into the neutral harbour. In this connection there is a rule, which will be found in our proclamation of neutrality in the Russio-Japanese war called 'the twenty-four hours' rule.' So it is now the British practice to forbid belligerent vessels to remain in her harbours longer than 24 hours except in case of stress of weather, need of repairs or of provisions or other things necessary for the subsistence of her crew. In such cases, the vessel must leave as soon as possible after 24 hours. We cannot however say that the 24 hours' rule is yet a rule of International Law.

II. We have so far considered the duties of neutral states towards other states and we shall

now speak of some of the duties of neutral states with regard to the conduct *of its own subjects.* In other words, International Law is strictly speaking only concerned with the conduct of states to one another, Municipal Law being concerned with the regulations made by a state for the guidance of its subjects. So then, it must not be assumed that because certain internal regulations may be made by a state enforcing certain duties on its subjects with regard to belligerents, such rules have the force of rules of International Law; on the contrary, the practice of the most civilised nations with respect to their Municipal Law is generally speaking in advance of that of International Law; the United States are, as has been mentioned, prominent as pioneers in this matter. In 1793, the United States Government laid it down that its citizens were bound not to take any part in the hostilities of belligerents which would tend to injure their own nation; also, that they were bound to keep the peace with regard to all nations with which their own nation was at peace. In 1794, the United States passed their Foreign Enlistment Act, which has in fact been in a great measure the foundation of the International Law of Neutrality.

The first British Foreign Enlistment Act was passed in 1819 and by its most important section it was made a crime to fit out armed vessels, without the license of the Crown, for employment against a friendly state or to deliver commissions to ships for such purpose or to augment the force of a foreign war vessel. Great doubt arose as to what exactly was meant by the words "fitting out armed vessels" and the act was replaced by the Foreign Enlistment Act of 1870, which was passed on account of the claims made against Great Britain by the United States after the Civil War. By its provisions no British subject may enlist without license of the Crown in the service of any foreign state at war with a friendly state or induce any other person to do so. Nor may subjects build, equip or despatch a ship *with reasonable cause for belief* that it will be employed in the service of a foreign state at war with a friendly one, nor may they aid the warlike equipment of any ship with the like intent. But a person may build or equip such ship in pursuance of a contract made before the war broke out, provided that, when neutrality is proclaimed, he gives notice to the Secretary of State and furnishes him with the required particulars, and also gives security against the removal of the ship before the termination of the war. Both Great Britain and the United States forbid their subjects to sell ships of war by their Municipal Law; other nations have contented themselves with forbidding the arming of vessels fitted solely for fighting purposes. By International Law, there is no doubt that the duty is nothing like so strict, and it is an open question whether the construction and equipment of vessels of war, or vessels capable of war, is anything more than legitimate commerce, liable of course to seizure as contraband by the other belligerent. Probably such construction and equipment are only actually opposed to the rules of International Law in the case of commissioned ships of war belonging to a belligerent and capable of inflicting damage.

Finally, a word as to *(a)* the rights of neutrals to carry goods of the enemy in their vessels, *(b)* the rights of neutral goods when carried on ships of the enemy.

(a) When enemy's goods were found on neutral ships the early practice of French Law was to confiscate both ships and goods, on the ground that the goods tainted the ship with an enemy character. In the middle of the 17th century, the Dutch, who were much interested in the question as being at that time the largest carriers of goods by sea, insisted that the goods were free on the principle 'free ships, free goods;' to which the corollary was—'enemy's ships, enemy's goods.' England at that period followed the old French practice and confiscated the goods, though not the ship. In 1801, Great Britain pursued the same policy, but is now together with the United States committed to the principle that to carry enemy's goods on neutral ships is no offence at International Law so as to render the ship liable; and also that a belligerent has the right to take his enemy's goods from the custody of the neutral at sea.

In 1854, at the conclusion of the Crimean War, the Declaration of Paris was signed to which practically all maritime nations have adhered except the United States, Mexico, Spain and Venezuela. By its terms, the neutral flag is declared to cover enemy's goods except contraband of war, and the old theory that the goods tainted the ship is exploded. A curious case unfortunately unsettled, occurred during the Boer War when the Dutch Republics were supplied with munitions of war loaded on neutral vessels, brought in through Lorenco Marques, a neutral port belonging to Portugal. Owing to the Republic's possessing no seaboard it was impossible

to blockade their ports. The British protested to the German Government against the use of neutral vessels for this purpose; and insisted that the destination of the cargo ought to determine its character.

(b) As to neutral goods on enemy's ships, this was also settled by the Declaration of Paris. Here curiously enough the practices of France and England were precisely the reverse from what they were in *(a)*. The early custom adopted by England was in favour of letting the goods go free, but France insisted on the maxim 'enemy's ships, enemy's goods.' The Dutch in all their treaties insisted on the doctrines of that the flag covers the goods, on the ground that neutrals ought to be allowed to choose any means of conveyance they like for their goods. The question is, however, settled for most nations by the Declaration of Paris, which declares that neutral goods with the exception of contraband of war are not liable to capture under the enemy's flag. Neutrals however, cannot claim for any loss of market or delay by reason of their goods being upon enemy's ships and if the goods are destroyed by the belligerent who captures the ship they are on, instead of being brought into port, apparently the neutral has no remedy.

So now-a-days, neutrals have the right to carry enemy's goods on their vessels, without exposing either the ship or the goods to capture, excepting goods which are contraband of war and they have also the right to place their goods on enemy's ships with the like immunity to the goods and subject to the same exception.

It may be added that the declaration of London (1907) which is an attempt to give some of the rules of International Law a binding force by Treaty among the signatory Powers, proposes that the neutral or enemy character of a vessel is determined by the flag she is entitled to fly. . . The neutral or enemy character of the goods found on board an enemy vessel is determined by the neutral or enemy character of the owner.

II.—THE RIGHTS OF BELLIGERENTS.

I now come to speak of the rights of belligerents and to enquire how far the fact that war exists between two nations gives either of them rights over the persons and property of the enemy. We have two equal and opposite considerations, *viz*, that a nation may take any steps, no matter how violent, against an enemy in order to further the object of the war, and, on the other side, the rights possessed by nations not involved in the war and friendly to both combatants (which we call neutrals,) to maintain their intercourse with either combatant, notwithstanding that a state of war exists between them. International Law has to attempt to hold an even balance between all parties and to see that as far as possible the rights of neutrals and combatants are preserved to each. It is, therefore, not surprising that in such a state of things different nations should hold different theories, which may or may not have been put into actual practice in the course of warfare, or that the practice of individual nations should have varied from time to time, partly due to change of circumstances, political or commercial, in or about the nation itself; partly due also to the march of civilization and the recognition of the principles of International Law. The subject with which I am now dealing, the rights of belligerents between themselves, unavoidably overlaps also into the domain of neutrality; but it will be well to try and confine my remarks to begin with, strictly to the belligerents themselves. What is the measure of those rights? Is there any limit to the operations of a successful military or naval force? What is to control it? All these questions meet us on the threshold of any discussion of this kind. It may be said that the rights of belligerents are measured by the object of the war; and that a belligerent has no right to undertake hostile operations not directed to attain that end. Assuming we take this for granted, the further question arises—may an enemy do *anything* and *everything* to attain the object in view; or is he in any way restrained? Here again we may lay it down that the only force lawful for an enemy to use is *necessary* force *i.e.*, force necessary to attain the object for which hostilities were undertaken. The old theory was that anything was lawful to an enemy which in any way bore upon the object in view *e.g.*, the killing of prisoners, in order to intimidate the enemy and decrease his fighting force, but this is a relic of barbarism and is not now seriously entertained. An extraordinary example of this, if true, is the reported deportation of Belgians by the Germans in the present war to work the German harvest. This appears to be a return to the age of serfdom. And it is just worth while to notice here that while among the great powers of the world weapons of war are getting more and more precise and deadly from year to year and almost

from day to day, (witness the enormous long-range guns, aeroplanes, mines, explosive bullets, wireless telegraphy,) so among them also are feelings of humanity in war prevailing,—(witness the care and attention which the wounded receive to-day from the surgeons of the enemy.) War, while it exists, must necessarily be awful and horrible, but much can be done and much has been already done by the consensus of nations to ameliorate and even to prevent unnecessary and wanton pain and destruction. It may be news to many that a formal declaration of war though usual, is by no means necessary and in spite of opinions to the contrary there seems no doubt that Germany was within her rights in going to war with France the other day without making such a declaration. Many wars began in the 17th century either without any formal declaration or before such declaration had been made. For instance, Blake, Admiral and General-at-Sea, and Van Tromp were engaged before even a manifesto had been issued *i. e.*, not a declaration by formal notice to the representatives of the enemy, but a notification issued to the inhabitants of the country and to their allies only. War dates from the first act of hostility on either side with or without notice. From that date friendly relations are broken off between the hostile States and their subjects, so that strictly speaking all subjects of the enemy found in the country after the outbreak of hostilities can be treated as prisoners. This harsh doctrine was, however, very early condemned, and we find that as early as 1242 Louis IX was considered to have committed an outrage by detaining the English merchants residing in his kingdom at the outbreak of war. Time is often given to enemy's subjects to withdraw, and generally they are allowed to remain during good behaviour. The reported treatment of M. Cambon, the French Ambassador at Berlin by the Germans at the outbreak of the present war is hardly to be reconciled with modern ideas. The Transvaal Government however expelled large number of the British subjects from the Transvaal in 1899 and the Russian Government expelled enemy subjects in the Far East summarily on the outbreak of the Russo Japanese war. There was a loud outcry in 1870 when France ordered all Germans to leave the Department of the Seine and either to retire south of the Loire or to withdraw from the country altogether. An enemy's rights being, as we have seen, restricted to the exercise of force reasonably necessary to attain his object, he may not wage war against unarmed persons: non-combatants cannot, of course, complain of the privations or sufferings which follow from war and which often press more hardly on those who stay at home than on those in the field, but they are entitled not to be kill-d by the enemy, unless they incur death as a punishment *e. g.*, for acting as spies, who are never entitled to be regarded as prisoners of war. Marauders, bandits, and deserters captured among the enemy's forces are liable to be treated in the same way, and in the Franco-Prussian War, persons in balloons for the purpose of observing the force and dispositions of the German army were captured and imprisoned in fortresses. No doubt these latter should be treated severely, but it is not certain that they should be treated as ordinary spies. It will be interesting to see if the pilot of a modern military aeroplane will be treated as a prisoner of war—presumably he would be so treated. No better example of the progress that considerations of humanity have made, can be given than the treatment of prisoners of war. In early times they were put to death; then, later, their lives were spared but they became the slaves of their captors; then, later again, they were allowed to buy their freedom if they could. In this connection, some of my legal readers will remember that one of the "feudal incidents" due from a tenant to his lord was a payment to provide a ransom for the latter in case he was captured in war. Up to the 17th century, prisoners of war were harshly treated. This may have been due to a feeling that every individual of the opposing forces was a sort of personal enemy. Prisoners are now maintained by their captors; and the heavy responsibility and burden thus placed on the latter but cheerfully undertaken in the interests of humanity were well exemplified in the Boer War, while the humane treatment of the prisoners, at all events on our side, is shown by the fact that many of them were loath to return to their native land. They evidently were in the same case as an old offender who, I remember, was brought up at Assizes in England and who frankly said that he preferred penal servitude to liberty "because he was so comfortable there." Combatants may be killed so long as they are able and willing to continue resistance, but no longer. A force which surrenders must be spared; quarter must be given in all cases unless it is absolutely impossible to encumber the force with prisoners. Formerly there was an exception with regard to a garrison which resisted an

attack from a superior force but a commander who refused quarter to-day would have a heavy task to prove that such a course was absolutely necessary and reasonable. The ordinary course with regard to prisoners now-a-days is to exchange them against those captured by the enemy or to release them on parol; whereby they undertake not to serve actively in the field for the remainder of the war. As to the wounded, they are provided for in all civilized warfare by the Geneva Convention of 1864, to which I must refer my readers for information. All I have space to say in passing is that by its terms the wounded and the medical staff in charge of them are regarded as neutrals, as are hospitals and ambulances so long as they are not held by a military force. The Swiss Cross signifying the neutrality of these is a familiar sight everywhere. Most of the great powers are also signatories to the St. Petersburg Declaration which restrains the employment of weapons which needlessly aggravate the sufferings of the wounded *e.g.*, projectiles below 400 grammes in weight which are charged with explosives.

Having considered in outline, the right of a belligerent to the persons of the enemy, let us pass on to enquire what rights he has over hostile property. Here we must observe a distinction between personal property or moveables and real property or immoveables. As to the former the enemy has a right to appropriate all public moveable property on the land subject to his military occupation, *i.e.*, all property possessed by the nation with whom he is at war. The rights given by military occupation have been the subject of much learned controversy. It was formerly thought that military occupation was somehow equivalent to conquest; that the territory of the enemy became a sort of "No Man's Land" by the fact of the war, and that when the invader occupied it the inhabitants were obliged to take an oath of allegiance to him and to render him services. In other words, the former sovereignty of the enemy was divested and invested in the invader. Then, another view was that a partial and temporary substitution of sovereignty took place. It was said that the original sovereign having failed to protect his subjects, they were no longer bound by allegiance to him. But there is no real transfer of sovereignty from one power to the other. Again it was thought that the inhabitants of the occupied territory gave up the national property under a sort of implied compact with the invader under which he agreed to forego the extreme rights of war. The weakness of this argument is that no compact is in fact made and that the inhabitants will generally rise and expel the invader if they have a chance of successfully doing so. The true view seems to be that this right of the invader is a mere incident of the hostilities; the sovereignty in the land is unchanged. Consequently the limits of the exercise of this right is the general one—the invader may do anything necessary to his safety or to the success of his operations. So that as a rule he may not interfere with the religion, the private property, the personal relations or the morality of the people whose territory he invades. As against this, the invader may levy contributions in money or requisitions in kind from the inhabitants, *e.g.*, the large levy recently made by Germans on the city of Brussels. His right is co-extensive with his power to take what he wants without asking for it; so there is no obligation on an invader to pay for the provisions, &c., with which he requires the inhabitants to furnish him and it was a distinct concession to scruple that the British forces in South Africa paid for everything or almost everything supplied by the inhabitants. Private property is, of course, sometimes seized as booty, *i.e.*, property taken from the enemy in the field or in besieged towns; but even then it is generally agreed that temples, museums of art and science should be exempt from capture and anything else that can be regarded not so much as the private property of an individual or a particular nation as of the world at large. In the absence of evidence to the contrary, the destruction of the library at LOUVAIN in Belgium by the Germans seems to be unpardonable; it being at present impossible to see how such destruction could assist Germany in her military operations. Private property may also be seized if it materially assists in maintaining the enemy, *e. g.*, cotton in the American Civil War which had almost the currency of money among the Confederate States. Ravaging an enemy's territory is only lawful when the necessities of warfare demand it. If wantonly or unnecessarily undertaken it is clearly unjustifiable. In the Boer War such a proceeding was justified by the fact that the enemy was a mobile force living on the produce of the land; the only way to disable that force was to cut off its supplies, and the only method of so doing was to ravage the land from which those supplies were derived.*

* Sometimes the enemy ravages his own country in order to disable the invader. The burning of Moscow is an historic instance of this.

As to private property at sea, I have previously said that now enemy's goods on neutral ships are exempt from capture; so are private fishing boats and other harmless vessels. Formerly the rule was that all private property of the enemy at sea could be captured; it cannot yet be said that the rule has been displaced, and it is no doubt still open to any nation to confiscate private property of the enemy at sea if it thinks fit to do so, provided it is condemned as good prize by a competent court. Such a practice is within his ordinary rights of appropriation the object being to cripple the trade of the enemy and to prevent his private ships from being used as transports or as armed cruisers. It may be the only resource of a belligerent at sea; but even here a modification has been introduced by the Declaration of Paris which provides that a neutral flag shall cover enemy's goods. What are the essentials of a valid capture at sea? Formerly it was held that an enemy who brought a ship of his enemy within his own harbour, or fleet or any other place of safety, for however short a time—was entitled to his prize. Then, afterwards, came the twenty-four hours' rule, *i.e.*, that twenty-four hours' possession transferred the title in the ship to the captor; but the period never became an authoritative rule of International Law and it may probably be said that the enemy's moveables become the property of their captor when brought into a place so secure that the enemy has no immediate prospect of recovering them. The general rule is that all prizes must be brought in by their captors to be adjudicated upon by a competent prize court; but sometimes the captor is justified in destroying the ships taken without bringing them into port for condemnation. In 1812-1814 the United States destroyed no less than seventy-four British merchantmen on the principle that it cripples an enemy's trade more to destroy his ships at once and moreover it does not put the captors to inconvenience in having to provide prize crews to take the captured vessels into port. There is nothing to prevent an enemy from destroying its prizes, if it is impossible to bring them in. This was probably the excuse of the Russians for sinking the neutral British steamer *Knight Commander* during the Russo-Japanese war in 1904. In any case the property if condemned would not be restored to the original owner.

As to real property or immoveables, the rule is that a title to it acquired in war must be confirmed either by a treaty of peace or accession of territory; so that during the continuance of hostilities no land in fact changes hands.

To sum up, the inhabitants of territory in the military occupation of the enemy retain full liberty of action; they do not lose their allegiance to their own sovereign; and if they recover at a future time property that has once been theirs, by a fiction called Postliminium, that property is supposed never to have left their hands; so, with judicial and administrative acts, they hold good in spite of interruption by an invader; not so, however, with acts purely political. The invader, on the other hand, may use taxes and other duties, and may generally prevent his enemy from using the resources of the occupied territory; he may also make demands of money or provisions from the inhabitants with or without payment, but these demands should be reasonable, having regard to the object of the war and military exigencies.

I pass now to those operations between belligerents which necessarily interfere with the rights of neutrals and especially with the cardinal right of the latter—to trade as freely with either side during the war as they did before it broke out. These operations are blockade, the carriage of contraband, and visit and capture.

(1) Blockade is the interference by the belligerent with the right of access to the territory or place held by the enemy. And in speaking of blockade, it must be remembered that International Law is only concerned with blockade by sea, for it is only there that the neutral has *prima facie* equal rights with the belligerent. A blockade on land follows from the rights of control possessed by the blockading army which have been already mentioned, and if the military investment is sufficiently strong all access to the enemy can be forbidden by force of arms. So that no special rules are needed to regulate a blockade on land. At sea it is different. Here the rights of belligerents and neutrals would be equal and opposite, but for the fact that the belligerent gains the advantage from the consideration that a neutral has no right to interfere with the military operations of a belligerent. So when the belligerent blockades his enemy with a view of cutting off his trade with other nations, and so crippling his resources and reducing his power, the neutral must acquiesce and forego his *prima facie* right to continue to supply the blockaded force with food, goods, ammunition, firearms, &c., as he did before the blockade occurred. There is a form of blockade known as pacific, but

as this is a means of putting compulsion on another power short of war, we are not, strictly speaking, concerned with it here. The blockade which is used in warfare, is the commercial blockade. The law as to blockades has been defined by the Declaration of Paris, but the practice on various points differs considerably between nations. It is agreed (*a*) that the belligerent must intend to institute the blockade as a distinct and substantive measure of war, and his intention must have been in some way brought to the knowledge of the neutrals affected; (*b*) the blockade must have been initiated under sufficient authority; (*c*) it must be maintained by a sufficient and properly disposed force. The first point which has given rise to difficulty has been this:—In *what* way must the intention to blockade be brought to the knowledge of neutrals? Must the latter be formally served with notice by the belligerent that a state of blockade exists? England together with the United States, Prussia and Denmark insist that knowledge that the blockade has been established is sufficient to subject a neutral ship to capture without further notice; and that once having acquired such knowledge, there is a presumption that the blockade continues until there is a notification to the contrary. This knowledge may be acquired either by a notification made by the belligerent to the neutral Government or by general notoriety. According to this view, no individual notification is given to neutral vessels, unless the blockade was instituted on an emergency by the naval commander on the spot or has not yet been notified or when a vessel sails from a very distant port where such notification has not yet arrived. France, Italy, Spain and Sweden, on the other hand, take the view that no liability attaches to the neutral till he has actually reached the scene of the blockade and tested its efficiency for himself. It does not matter if the blockade were notified before the ship left port or not, such notice does not affect her, if as a matter of fact when she gets to the spot, she finds she can get in without interference. This view makes individual notification necessary. Notice has to be given on the spot by one of the blockading squadron to each neutral vessel as she approaches. This view is now definitely abandoned by the signatories to the Declaration of London (1909) and the English view is now adopted. What is a sufficient force? In the English view there must be a certain degree of risk to ships trying to enter. What exactly that degree is, depends on circumstances and the nature of the case. For instance, the blockade of Charleston during the American Civil War was considered sufficient by England. In that case, one ship of the blockading squadron lay off the bar between the two main entrance channels, and two or three others cruised outside. But continental writers insist that it is necessary that the entrance to the blockaded port should be guarded by stationary vessels, so close together that a vessel entering would be exposed to a cross-fire between them. The validity of capture for 'blockade running' is now determined for Great Britain and the other signatories of the Declaration of London (1909) by Article 20 of the Declaration which lays down that a vessel which has broken blockade outwards or which was attempted to break blockade inwards is liable to capture so long as she is pursued by a ship of the blockading part. If the pursuit is abandoned or the blockade is raised, the capture is invalid. This is a distinct modification of the rule previously observed by Great Britain that a ship which has broken blockade is liable to capture if taken during any part of her voyage including the return voyage. Neutral vessels in a port about to be blockaded by a belligerent are always allowed time in which to leave.

(ii) Contraband. That is to say, articles which neutrals are forbidden to trade in with the enemy. This doctrine is therefore another infringement on the liberty of neutrals—and the practice which we mentioned in a former article, under which neutral goods on enemy's ships are free from confiscation does not apply to articles contraband of war. The principle of contraband is that a belligerent is permitted to prevent his enemy from deriving assistance from outside sources to enable him to continue his resistance. Grotius divides goods into (*a*) those useful in war only *e. g.*, arms—which are naturally contraband; (*b*) things useless in war, which are not contraband; (*c*) things usefel in both peace and war. It is this last division which has given rise to much discussion. The general effect of treaties concluded in the 17th century was to exclude only articles of direct use in warfare. In the 18th century, most English treaties included saltpetre and horses in the list of contraband and excluded provisions and naval stores. The difficulty of the subject comes largely from the consideration that trade ought to be as free as possible, that as little direct hardship as possible should be imposed on non-combatants and the reluctance of nations to insist on an extensive list of contraband in their treaties whereby they may some day find themselves seriously hampered in their trade as neutrals

In the 19th century England seems to have included naval stores and saltpetre in the list of contraband and many of her treaties during this period also included horses and munitions of war. Horses, saltpetre and sulphur seem to have the widest vogue as contraband, and next come materials of naval construction, especially if manufactured, as for instance armour plates for warships. The list of contraband articles had never been settled previous to the Declaration of London (1909) when three lists were drawn up consisting respectively of:

(i) articles to be treated as absolutely contraband;

(ii) goods which may become conditional contraband;

(iii) a number of articles which shall in no case be contraband.

Cotton which was declared absolute contraband by Russia in the Russio-Japanese war, is included in the second class above; so is coal and other fuel. England on the other hand could never afford to consent to the proposition that food is undoubtedly contraband. In the recent list of contraband published by England in the present war, steam coal is declared absolutely contraband, but not cotton or food stuffs. The huge ironclads of to-day would be absolutely powerless without coal, but it cannot be said that coal must necessarily be put to a warlike use; there are hundreds of ways in which coal is employed other than on ships of war. By the Declaration of London (1909) a vessel carrying contraband may be condemned if the contraband forms more than half the cargo. Goods belonging to the owner of the contraband and which are on board the same vessel are liable to condemnation. A vessel not liable to condemnation owing to the proportion of contraband she carries may be allowed to continue her voyage if the contraband is handed over to the belligerent warship. A neutral ship which carries despatches or persons for the service of a belligerent renders herself liable to condemnation on the same grounds as a carrier of contraband if she is on a voyage specially undertaken with a view to the transport of individual passengers who are embodied in the armed forces of the enemy or with a view to the transmission of intelligence in the interest of the enemy. Also if the neutral owner knew or ought to have known that the despatches or persons were connected with warlike operations and can be said in some way to have indentified himself with the belligerent for that purpose. These persons and intelligence are called Analogues of Contraband. A neutral ship exclusively so engaged would lose her neutral character and be classed as an enemy merchantship. The Hague Convention of 1907 declared the postal correspondence of neutrals or belligerents whatever its official or private character may be, found on the high seas on a neutral or enemy ship to be inviolable. This rule, however, does not exempt a neutral mail ship from the laws of maritime war as to neutral merchant ships in general. The ship, however, may not be searched except when absolutely necessary and then with as much consideration and expedition as possible. It may be remembered that during the Russio-Japanese war the Russians in May 1904 stopped and searched the British mail steamer *Osiris* in the Mediterranean.

(iii) Lastly, a word as to visit and capture. The former is the means by which a belligerent discovers if a merchantman sailing under a neutral flag is in fact neutral or whether she is committing a breach of International Law. In the latter case, visit may be followed by capture which can, however, only be effected by commissioned ships of a belligerent. The latter has no power to visit the public vessels of his enemy. There was much discussion as to whether merchant vessels under convoy—*i.e.*, sailing in company with and under the protection of the public ships of a belligerent—can be visited. At the Conference of London, Great Britain agreed with the Continental view that neutral vessels under national convoy are exempt from search. Capture may take place, when visit and search are resisted; when a vessel is engaged in illicit trade and carries a cargo liable to confiscation; when the true character of the ship cannot be ascertained; when the ship possesses false documents; or its papers have been destroyed or concealed. If a neutral puts his goods on an armed vessel, he is presumed to intend to resist the belligerent's right to visit and search and therefore his goods will be condemned with the ship, for they are identified with it. But resistance offered by a belligerent vessel in charge of a neutral vessel, sets the goods free according to English doctrine, which, however, is not in accordance with the view taken by the United States.

THE ETHICS OF WAR IN ANCIENT INDIA

BY

Prof. T. Rajagopalachariar, M.A., B.L.,

OF THE MADRAS LAW COLLEGE.

War in ancient India must have been a very familiar event in national life. The mutual rivalries among the early Aryan families led to frequent warfare and are referred to in the Rig-Vedic records, e.g., the Vasishta Visvamitra feuds. The contact of the Aryan tribes with the original inhabitants of the country, the Dasyus as they were called, led also to frequent strife and kept up the martial spirit of the young Aryan people. As the non-Aryans, perhaps under civilized rule themselves, partially submitted to the inevitable, and became a part of the conquering community as hewers of wood and drawers of water, the out-lying indigenous tribes, in the lowest grades of civilisation, the Rakshasas and the Pisachas as they were called, continued to give trouble to the conquerors of the land, and this likewise made war the business of a portion of the Aryan nation. The Aryan people of the day, not yet sharply distinguished into castes, had however the non-combatant class, the singing, the sacrificing, and the cultivating members as distinguished from the fighters and the protectors. When distinctions came to be established, they were at first between the Brahma and the Kshatra, the priest and the fighter. The echo of this stage is heard far down in the Upanishad times when the Kathopanishad speaks of the 'Brahma' and 'Kshatram' as comprising the whole community.

The Gods of Ancient India are mainly described as fighters. Indra was the hero *par excellence*. He slew Vritra, Sushna, Pipru, Sambara and a host of other foes. He 'chastised the tribes that always defiled their tongue by foul speech' and demolished their seven castles. Poets vied with each other in singing his deeds. A late poet says:—

> **Those ancient exploits of thee, O Indra, the new bards have also sung. Thou hast subdued and vanquished numerous wicked tribes to put a stop to further fighting. Thou hast broken down the power as well as the strongholds of the ungodly and snapped the weapon of the unbelieving enemy.**

So again Agni, Mitra, Varuna, the Maruts, and even the Aswins, the divine physicians and surgeons were heroic, and won their fame in battles. Songs were sung to inspire the gods in their deeds of valour, and to invoke their aid in combats against the 'unworshippers;' generous potions of the Soma drink strengthened the gods and the men. If wealth, long life, progeny, and worldly prosperity generally were the quest of men in those days, success in war, destruction of enemies, and protection from the barbarians were no less the objects of prayer. *Rathitamam Rathinam*, 'foremost among the fighters in chariots' is a frequent praise bestowed on the gods of those days. When the foes of these gods resorted to *Maya* or trickish warfare, *kuta yudha* as it came to be called, the gods frequently rose to the occasion and deigned to use similar *Mayas* against them. So Indra is praised for his *Mayas* in his fights with the unbelieving foes. 'In fighting Vrita and others, he frustrated the wiles of the wily.' The value of the horse in war was well-known. "I repair to you for shelter," says a poet, "as a warrior with his fleet courser should betake to his army." The Soma drink was extracted and drunk, and the gods had it offered to them, as it was 'the food worthy only of a hero.' Even the poets of the day fought as well as sang; "give us" says a poet, "a heroic champion on the car to lead our van. Grant success, talent and conquering might, unassailable and irresistible, unto the poet-worshipper stationed in the encampment." The numerous references to bows and arrows, coat-mail, swords, spears, and other implements of war indicate a state of society

when fighting as an art was not relegated to an exclusive caste, and when the soldier and the conqueror were held in great esteem. Battles on a large scale were not unknown as we find references to "a hundred and one huge castles shattered," 'a hundred thousand of the enemy slain and scattered on the bosom of the earth.' That the martial spirit was a living reality among the people of those days is evident from the above extracts. One more may be added. In a hymn to Brahaspati, 'the hero of many a battle,' the worshipper says: 'Produce heroes among us who are heroes ourselves.' (*Viresha Viram Upa pringdhi nah twam*) we shall sing your great glory in the assembly of our heroic men.'

In considering whether the acts of opposing armies in those days were strictly humane or reckless and uncontrolled, it is well to bear in mind that the general rule in early European warfare was that all was fair in war, and that rules prohibiting certain kinds of arms came into use only gradually. When new weapons were discovered, the first impression was that they were ungodly and the work of the devil, and they were consequently vehemently condemned. Thus the cross-bow, the musket, fire-arms generally, torpedoes, all these were subjects of anathema when they were first invented, and soldiers using them were given no quarter. Now even submarine mines and torpedoes are permitted subject to certain conditions, which are in practice followed or discarded according to the exigencies of the situation and the temper of the belligerent. The second Hague Peace Conference, 1907, has prohibited "for a period extending to the close of the Third Conference the discharge of projectiles and explosives from balloons, or by other new methods of a similar nature," a provision already being disregarded in the present European war, by the French and Germans who it must be mentioned, however, abstained from subscribing to this portion of the conventions. It is therefore not surprising to find in the Rig Veda references to the wiles and tricks (*mayas*) of the 'ungodly' in war. As the operation of the new weapons came to be known and mastered, credit was given to the ability to use such weapons by the godly forces. Indra is frequently extolled for killing his enemy by strategem where other means of victory failed. Thus he killed Vritra, after solemn promises of peace, by his Vajra inserted in a piece of foam, and he mercilessly cut into pieces the embryo in Diti's womb "when the expected offspring was to be his mortal foe. And these acts elicited only half-hearted disapproval.

As time advanced and civilisation progressed, we find the subject of war treated in the Smritis and the Nitisastras with great fulness and thought. War is dealt with in the Smritis among the duties of kings (Rajadharma), and in the Artha Sastras among the modes of territorial acquisition and increase of power. The Smritis of Manu, and Yajnavalkya, the Vishnusmriti, and the Mahabharata and many Puranas, contain sections on Rajadharma including the rules of war. The Artha Sastras of Sukracharya, Koutilya and Kamandaka contain detailed rules as to the equipment of armies, the time and mode of warfare, the classification of friends and foes, and numerous allied topics. The *Mahabharata* (chapters 57 and 58, Santiparva) contains a half-mythical bibliography of ancient works on polity. The authors mentioned are Brihaspati, Visalaksha, Kavya, Prachetasa Manu, Bharadvaja, Gourasiras, and the God Indra himself. God Brahma, however, was, we are told, the founder of the science in a work of 100,000 chapters whose contents are detailed in a long list of verses. And the successive summarisers of this huge work, were, in the usual Indian way, Visalaksha, Bahudanta, Brahaspati, and Kavya, Usanas or Sukracharya. Sukracharya is said to be the last, whose work contained indeed the modest number of 1,000 chapters, though the existing *Nitisara* of Sukracharya is a work of much smaller compass containing exactly 2567 slokas disposed in five chapters of unequal length. The contents of the chapters are various, referring to the duties of kings generally, the characteristics of friends and foes, the control and augmentation of the treasury, the disposition of fortresses, the equipment of the army, and various other matters pertaining to the duties of kings. A chapter is devoted to law (Vyavahara), and another chapter to social and popular customs.

Sukracharya was the preceptor of the Asuras or the hereditary foes of the gods, and that perhaps accounts for the fact that he is somewhat lax in his morality as to warfare. War is either *Dharma* or *Kuta*, just or regardless of justice. *Kutayudha* or warfare with stratagems or objectionable practices is strongly condemned in Manu and other early works, but Sukracharya is somewhat plain-spoken in the matter, and advocates a form of practical morality which falls far short of the ideal. He says, after referring to the usual rules of humanity in wars: 'These rules apply to just warfare (*Dharma yudha*); in immoral warfare

(*Kutayudha*), these rules have no application; and adds, 'there is no warfare like Kutayudha in extirpating a powerful enemy.' He boldly asserts that Rama, Krishna, Indra, and the Devas generally resorted to immoral warfare on certain occasions. He advocates the use of dissimulation, flattery, and meek submission, in carrying out one's object with the enemy, and even recommends the acceptance of dishonour if that will forward the main purpose desired. "The wise man should place even disgrace in the front and honour at the back and accomplish his desired object, for it is folly to lose one's object." It is apparent from the above that Sukracharya was the Machiavelli of India; but his school, though ancient, was not the popular one and the best moralists of the country did not approve of his recommendations. It must be remembered however that it is the feature of the *Arthasastras* in general to subordinate justice to expediency, as, for instance, the modern science of political economy, which pays no heed to the flow of the generous instincts of the members of society. We therefore find in the Smritis a rule to the effect that the Dharma Sastras are more authoritative than the Artha Sastras, as the latter do not put morality so high as the former. The Artha Sastras are the sciences of economics and politics, the sciences dealing with individual well-being as well as the well-being of the state.

Koutilya's Artha Sastra is the next important work on politics deserving mention. Chanakya, Koutilya and Vishnugupta are the various names by which this minister and friend of Chandragupta Mourya was known. This Brahmin, justly noted for the ability and sagacity with which he acted in bringing about the fall of the Nandas and the establishment of the Mourya dynasty, is the author of a voluminous Artha Sastra, known usually as Koutilya's Artha Sastra, largely quoted in later commentaries. His time, if his connection with Chandragupta is true, must be the end of the 4th century B.C. The drama *Mudrarakshasa* gives a vivid insight into the character of this politician, and his ability in the arts of war and peace-making.

The Kamandakiya Nitisara is a work which should not be omitted from any account of the Hindu works on Polity. As its name implies, it treats of the arts of government and war and is by Kamandaka or Kamandaki, a disciple of Koutilya or Chanakya. Kamandaka's work is in 36 sections and contains, we are told, 1250 verses, while Koutilya's work contained 100 sections and 6000 stanzas. The work of Kamandaka is characterised by great brevity and clearness of language, and is a sober handbook on polity, full of historical illustrations.* A special interest of the work lies in the fact that a number of previous authors in Politics are mentioned in the course of the work and their views set forth on one or two topics. Such names are those of Maya, Puloma, Indra, Usanas, Guru, Visalaksha, Bahudanta, and Parasara. Kamandaka does not specify the list of those who are not to be injured in war, a list which we give later on, but strongly supports Sukracharya in approving *kuta yudha*. He says that a weak king who has a strong opponent should resort to *kuta yudha*. He approves of the massacre of the enemy, when the latter are in deep slumber, as the massacre by Aswathma in the Mahabharata war.

Confining ourselves to the science of war, a portion of the science of politics, we may state at the outset that a high value has always been placed on heroism in war in all Hindu writings. Flight in war has been considered a great disgrace, worse than death. Manu says:—

"A king who is defied by foes, be they equal in strength, or stronger, or weaker, must not shrink from battle, remembering the duty of Kshatriyas. Not to turn back in battle, to protect the people, to honour the Brahmanas, is the best means for a king to secure happiness. Those kings who, seeking to slay each other in battle, fight with the utmost exertion and do not turn back, go to heaven" (VII, 87-89).

So Yajnavalkya:

'Those who fight for their land in battles, without turning back and without using prohibited arms (like poisoned darts), reach heaven like meditating men (Yogins). The steps of those who, when their ranks are broken, do not turn back, but fight on, are like so many sacrifices (i.e., procure Swarga). The king takes up the virtues of those who are killed while running away." (I. 322, 323).

Sukracharya is, emphatically, to the same effect.

"In this world two men go beyond the solar sphere (i.e., to heaven)—the meditating ascetic, and the soldier killed in battle while facing the enemy. One should protect oneself by killing even his learned Brahmin Guru (who may oppose him) in battle, so says sruti . . . . . The teachers are kind, and learned people are advocates of sinlessness. They should never be asked on occasions of great fear . . . The rascal, who flies from a fight to save his life is really dead though alive and endures the sins of the whole people. The man who deserts the ally or the master and flies from the battle-field gets hell after death, and while alive is cried down by the entire people. The man who sees his friend in distress and does not help him in battle gets dishonour, and when dead, goes to hell" Sukraniti (see Translation published by the Panini Office, Allahabad (IV, 7. 317, 318, etc.)

* The work has been recently published in the Trivandrum Sanskrit Series, with a commentary.

And earlier in the same chapter of Sukraniti we read:

"Even Brahmins should fight if there had been agressions on women, and priests, or there has been killing of cows. The man who runs away from battle is surely killed by the gods . . . The death of Kshatriyas in the bed is a sin . . . People should not regret the death of the brave man who is killed in battle. The man who does not fly from a battle does at once perform the duties of all the four asramas."

And the Bhagavad Gita says :—

"There is nothing more productive of good to the Kshatriya than *righteous* war. Happy the Kshatriyas, O Partha, who obtain such a fight, offered unsought as an open door to heaven."

The last extract speaks of righteous war, and there is no doubt that our sacred books condemned unrighteous war. War for mere assertion of brutal force, or for unjustifiable territorial aggrandisement was condemned. The *Mahabharata*, repeatedly says, "*yato dharmah tato jayah*" 'where there is righteousness, there is victory'. Manu says: 'The supreme duty of the Kshatriya is to protect his people. The king who enjoys his assigned fruits (taxes, subsidies etc.,) is alone coupled with Dharma (i. e., is alone virtuous).' These words imply that to wage an aggressive war is a fall from virtue; but it is to be feared that, in former days as now, a perpetual state of activity and preparedness for war was enjoined and the king wanting in *Udyoga* or energy was condemned.

The neighbours of a king are elaborately classified into various kinds of friends and foes. The immediate neighbour is presumed to be a foe, one next to him, a friend. One further off, a neutral or indifferent ruler. All writers from Manu to Kamandaka are particularly full on this topic of description of the foes, friends or allies, and neutrals. The exposition of the Mandalam or the area of war with reference to the nature of the parties is very interesting. Kamandaka, for instance, sets out the opinions of various writers as to their conception of the composition of the Mandalam. Friends and foes are classified into 3 kinds, the born friend or foe, the natural friend or foe, and the artificial friend or foe. Manu enjoins that the attitudes of friends and foes should be watched from time to time.

Sukracharya is thoroughly pessimistic as to the possibility of friendship between kings. He says: 'To those rulers who are valorous, capable of attacking, strong in army, and clever in strategy, all are foes, secretly hating, and awaiting a suitable opportunity. What wonder is there? Are they not all covetous of territory? Kings can have no friends and can be friends to none' (IV I.). Friends are to be preserved and enemies are to be suppressed; and for this purpose four well-known means are to be employed, *Sama* (Peace), *Dana* (Gift), *Bheda* (Division), and *Danda* (War). Kamandaka adds Maya, neglect and magic to the list. The merciful Manu says that the first three should be employed, separately or together; the last never, except in the last resort; for victory is uncertain, and defeat frequent. So one should avoid war as much as possible. 'Where defeat is certain, it is better to retire,' says the commentator. The fruits of war are said to be the securing of a friend, conquest of territory, or acquisition of wealth; and Manu justly adds that the securing of a friend for the future is much more important than the acquisition of wealth or territory. In conquering an enemy, six measures are always laid down for a military monarch, *viz*., making alliance, war, marching to battle, sitting encamped, alliance with a powerful king, and distribution of forces; and when each of these becomes appropriate is also laid down by various writers.

Though the writers on war do not specifically say so, we may take it that war was usually preceded by a declaration more or less formal or by the delivery of an ultimatum. The despatch of Hanuman in the *Ramayana* served the purpose of a declaration, though mobilisation had not been completed. And the rule that the person of a messenger or *Duta* must be held sacred was well recognised, as we find from the protests of Vibhishna and others against the proposed detention and chastisement of the messenger. In the *Mahabharata*, the declaration of war was through Uluka just before the commencement of hostilities, the despatch of Sanjaya and the *Yana* of Sri Krishna, serving merely the part of overtures for peace that preceded the war. The principle of the inviolability of an envoy's person is also explicitly referred to here, where the unholy attempt of Duryodhana to imprison Krishna was justly condemned by all the senior advisors.

In the conduct of war, it is gratifying to note that the rules of humanity against killing a fallen or flying or disabled foe are laid down from the earliest times.

Bodhayana says,

"One should not fight with barbed weapons, or with poisoned ones. One should not fight a frightened or intoxicated enemy or one who is a lunatic, one who is unarmed, a woman, a child or a Brahmin. But a Brahmin who advances with intent to kill is excepted." (I, 10, 10—12).

And Manu :

When he fights with his foes in battle, let him not strike with weapons concealed (in wood), nor with such as are barbed, poisoned, or the points of which are blazing with fire! Let him not strike one who (in flight) has climbed an eminence, nor a eunuch, nor one who folds his palms in supplication, nor one who flees with flying hair, nor one who sits down (unable to fight), nor one who says 'I am yours'. Nor one who is asleep, who has no weapons, or who has ceased fighting or one who is fighting with another. Nor one whose weapons are broken, one afflicted with sorrow, one grievously wounded, one who is in fear nor one who has turned from fight. (VII. 90—93).

So Yagnavalkya :

One should not kill in fight a man who says 'I am thine', a eunuch, a weapon-less one, one who is fighting with another, one who has retired from fight, or one who is merely a spectator. (I. 324).

These rules may be compared with those of the Hague Code on the same matter, p. 721 Westlake, War. Similar rules are given by Sukracharya (IV 7.) But as we have seen, Sukracharya asserts that there may be occasions when no quarter is to be given, and subordinates clemency to military necessity and expediency. For he says, 'the enemy has to be killed in war, whether conducted according to rules of morality or otherwise'. This writer also does not recognise the expediency of a previous declaration of war. He says, 'one should commence military operations all on a sudden and withdraw also in an instant and fall upon the enemy like robbers from a distance'. This is apparently consonant to the practice in modern 'civilised' warfare where no declaration of War is absolutely necessary. Though the Hague Conference of 1907 has adopted a rule that war most be preceded by a declaration or an ultimatum with a conditional declaration (see Holland on *War on land*, page 18), still the practice has been otherwise. The wars with France in 1778 and 1815 were without a declaration and in the present European War, Germany has dispensed with a declaration as against France. The object of a declaration is to provide for an interval of notice, but, as Professor Holland remarks the refusal of the powers to agree to such an interval, nullifies the effect of the rule above referred to. Some writers (Westlake, War, p. 23) indeed reject the demand for an interval as unreasonable.

As may be expected, the rules of Sukracharya on the conduct of war are fuller and more elaborate, if less humane, than those of other Hindu writers. His rules for the maintaining, the equipping, and the controlling of the army are sensible and wise. The same remarks apply to the rules of Kamandaka also.

The great principle of Rousseau that war is not a relation of man to man but of state to state, and that enemy individuals and private enemy property should be inviolable, is all but exploded now and modern English writers consider the idea as visionary and unpractical. But it would appear that wars in India in ancient times and also in pre-Mussalman times were conducted with a minimum of inconvenience to private property and personal safety of the non-combatant subjects of the belligerent states. The Mahabharata War whose object was the recovery of the just share of territory of the sons of Pandus, and in which the whole military power of Indian rulers was engaged, was fought on the Kurukshetra plain, away from the inhabited area, and no portion of the armies seems to have been employed in capturing cities, or dislocating peaceful private life. The magnitude of the armies engaged in the war, assuming it to have been historical, is simply enormous. An *akshoukini* is said to have consisted of 21,870 chariots, as many elephants, 3 times as many horse, and 5 times as many foot-soldiers. Remembering that the chariots and elephants were well manned, the total fighting strength of an *akshoukini* must be over 200,000. 18 *akshoukinis* fought in the war, 11 on the side of the Kurus and 7 on the Pandu's side. The mobilisation and concentration of this huge army of nearly 4 million warriors with some thing like 40,000 elephants and chariots would have involved enormous labour. But it is appalling to consider what further enormous ruin, would have been caused, if the war had been spread over a large area, instead of having been concentrated, and portions of this huge army had been let loose on the peaceful inhabitants of even the more prominent cities of either combatant in the vicinity of the seat of war. And if the various allies on either side had treated the war as an opportunity for invading one another's dominions, the ruin and desolation caused would have been tremendous indeed.

It could not be said however that all wars in India even in ancient times were fought on the principle of Rousseau above stated. Even Manu recognises the principle that the objective in war must be the disabling of the enemy. We read (VII. 195, 196)

"When he has shut up his foe in a town, let him sit encamped, harass his kingdom, and continually spoil his grass, food, fuel, and water. Likewise let him destroy the tanks, ramparts and ditches, and let him assail the foe unawares and alarm him at night".

We take it however that the above applies to the military resources of the army of the enemy,

and does not permit the poisoning of wells etc., in the enemy's country under occupation or invasion.

So Sukracharya :

'The powerful should carefully coerce the enemy by stopping the supplies of water, provisions, fodder, grass, etc., in an unfavourable region and then attack and annihilate it'. (IV, 7, 367.)

A vigorous system of espionage is advocated in all treatises, both for furnishing the king with information of his subject's dispositions, and for ascertaining the power, position, and nature of the enemy. A king is said to be *chara-chakshus*, seeing through his spies, and the institution of secret agents is time-honoured in this country. All the same, the spies of the enemy were harshly treated, and seldom escaped unhurt.

Even in this country where the doctrine of Karma and divine grace have full sway, the Smrities dealing with war insist on the primary importance of effort and vigilance on the part of kings.

Sukracharya says :

'Men who are wise and whose character deserves praise greatly respect *pourusha* (energy) ; whereas the weaklings who are incapable of energy, cling to Fate.' (I. 48.)

It remains now to consider some incidents in the two national works, the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*, where descriptions of war are numerous ; in the latter of them especially the combatants were long and fiercely engaged, and various incidents occurred which strict morality has condemned, though military necessity and expediency might excuse.

The killing of Tataka by Rama is considered a censurable act, as women are not proper foes. But it is justified by Visvamitra who removes Rama's hesitation by describing her as a sinful and wicked woman, full of wiles, and causing obstruction to sacrifices, and therefore fit to be killed. When Rama killed Vali, Sugriva's brother, under cover of a tree and while Vali was engaged with his brother in single combat, Rama apparently neglected all rules of duels, and is severely taken to task by the monkey ruler in his last moments. Rama's justification, politically speaking, was simply that Vali was the enemy of his ally and deserved to be extirpated and so it is put in Kamandaka's work.

In the *Uttarakanda* Chapter VIII, there is an incident in the battle between Vishnu and the Rakshasa Malyavan which deserves mention. Narayana who espoused the cause of the Devas against the Rakshasas fought furiously and drove his enemy before him. Seeing the running followers ruthlessly pursued and murdered, Malyavan the Rakshasa leader says: 'Are you unaware, Narayana, of the ancient rule of Kshatriya warfare, that, like an ordinary person, you strike us that are running out of fear and wishing to desist from fight.' To which Narayana replies that he has promised the Devas his aid and must extirpate the Rakshasas wherever they go.

Turning to the *Mahabharata*, it must be admitted that examples of violation of the humane rules of war are more frequent and marked. Apart from the injustice of the Kurus in forcing a bloody war on their cousins, the incidents of this famous war of India are, some of them, unjustifiable by the standards laid down in the Sastras themselves. Both sides are guilty of such acts, and the only excuse possibly is that they were by way of mutual revenge and justified by the necessities of the situation. And this illustrates the truth that human nature is at its worst when men meet in close conflict and all is forgotten but the desire of revenge.

The rules of war in ancient India are however a credit to the sagacity of its statesmen and disclose a keenness for justice and fairplay which must excite the admiration of modern jurists. The discipline of the army, the disposal of fortresses, the objectives in war and peace, have all been subjects of deep study. The outstanding feature in all these is that statecraft in its international aspect was by no means a neglected science, and that many of the rules laid down will bear comparison with those of the present times, in their regard for efficiency and insight into human nature, and due attention to considerations of justice and humanity. And if we regard the generality of the ancient rules of Polity and War, we see a sustained preference of Dharma in War: the maxim is laid down without hesitation that in Dharma lies victory: *yato dharmah tato jayah* :

It is this historic nurture in the school of justice that has enabled India to appreciate great Britain's worth, and to rise with one voice and proclaim its unswerving loyalty and devotion to the British power in its great strife in the cause of Righteousness and Friendship. May the cause of Right and Justice speedily attain success, and may the reign of bloodshed and cruelty draw to a speedy end !

POLAND

BY

REV. E. M. MACPHAIL, M. A., B. D.

DURING the past few years there has been a noteworthy revival of interest in the Polish question. Until lately most people fancied, if they ever thought on the subject at all, that *Finis Poloniæ*, the legendary exclamation of Kosciuszko, had been definitively inscribed on the tomb of Poland. Of late, however, it has been realised that the persistence of the Polish language and of the Polish national spirit, in spite of the repressive measures adopted by the Russian and the Prussian governments, indicated that the history of Poland did not lie altogether in the past. More than one eminent writer on public matters has said in recent years that the Polish question was bound to come to the front again, especially if the dreaded general European war broke out. That prophecy has been fulfilled. When the Russian armies were about to invade Prussian and Austrian Poland, the Tsar issued a proclamation promising autonomy to Poland, and inviting the Prussian and Austrian Poles to join their Russian brethren. Since then the success of the Russian armies over Austria in Galicia or Austrian Poland has led to a further step. Galicia has been declared a Russian province and a Russian nobleman, Count Bobrinsky has been appointed governor. Count Bobrinsky is almost certainly the distinguished member of the Duma or Russian Parliament whom I knew thirty years ago as a student in Edinburgh University and as a fellow member of the Speculative Society. As a young man he showed marked ability and was distinguished for his strong pro-Slav and liberal views. He is now more conservative than he was then, but a speech he delivered in Edinburgh two or three years ago to the students who had given a luncheon in his honour at the University Union showed that he is a strong supporter of the advance that Russia has made along the road to constitutional government. His appointment may be taken as showing that the Tsar's proclamation is more than merely a move in the diplomatic game.

The misfortunes of Poland have always attracted a certain amount of attention to the history of that unhappy country, but few probably even of those who are aware that its fate has been to be partitioned between Russia, Prussia and Austria realise how great was the fall of Poland and how important a place she at one time occupied in Eastern Europe. The object of the present article is to describe briefly the rise of Poland, to trace its decline with the causes that led to its fall, and to look at the subsequent history of its broken fragments.

The Poles belong to the western Slavonic race and were akin to the peoples who lived between the Elbe and the Oder and who were gradually conquered and absorbed by the Germans in the Middle Ages. Their name is said to mean the inhabitants of the plains, and when they are first heard of they were dwelling in the flat lands along the banks of the Vistula. In the sixteenth century when Poland was at the height of its power and extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea and from Hungary to Russia, it included in its population many peoples who were not Poles. In Galicia there were large members of Malo-Russians or Red Russians. In Lithuania there were, Letts, Lithuanians and Samogitians, peoples that belonged to the Lettic and not to the Slavonic stock. In the east of Lithuania the inhabitants belonged to the White Russians and were thus often drawn towards Muscoy rather than to Poland. In the towns the burghers were to a great extent Germans, and in them also were settled many Jews and Armenians. This mixture of peoples had, as we shall see, important political results.

The early history of Poland is mainly legendary. It was ruled by a dynasty known as the Piasts, and first emerges into the light of history in the tenth century. During that century the strong German kings Henry the Fowler and Otto the Great, were engaged in subduing the Slavs and in pushing the German power eastwards, securing their frontiers as they went by the creation of Marks which were entrusted to the care of specially brave and able Margraves. In 963

the Margrave Gero secured the submission of Mieczyslaw or Mieszko I, the Prince of the Poles, who thus became a feudatory of the Emperor Otto the Great. Mieszko about this time became a Christian. It is said that in the first instance he joined the Greek church, but, however that may be, he or his son Boleslaus I ultimately attached Poland to the Western Church, no doubt with the object of obtaining the assistance of the church against German aggression. The Polish bishopric of Posen was under the German see of Magdeburg, but with a view to acquiring national independence Boleslaus I, succeeded in having an archbishopric established at Gnesen. The young dreamer Otto III paid Boleslaus a visit, and was so much pleased with his entertainment that he bestowed the title of king upon his host. Boleslaus tried to show himself worthy of his new dignity. He founded towns and did what he could to Christianise and civilise his peoples. At the same time he extended the boundaries of Poland both to the east and to the west acquiring amongst other places Cracow the future capital. When on the death of Otto III the policy of the Emperors again became more German and less imperial, Boleslaus resolutely sought to check the advance of the German power and succeeded in making the Oder the boundary between Slav and Teuton for a time.

For nearly three centuries after the death of Boleslaus I in 1026 Poland was of little importance. His successors were weak and some of them adopted the mistaken policy of dividing their territories amongst their sons. A number of petty principalities or palatinates came into existence and the title of king disappeared for about two hundred years. During this period not only were outlying Slavonic lands like Silesia and Pomerania being gradually Germanised but German influence was making itself felt within Poland itself. There were two main causes for this—the settlement of the Knights of the Teutonic Order in what is now East Prussia, and the encouragement of the immigration of German burghers into Polish towns. The Teutonic Knights were a military order of monks, like the Knights Templars or the Hospitallers, and were founded in 1191 at the time of the Third Crusade. When that crusade proved a failure it was suggested that the Knights should turn their crusading activities elsewhere. At the time it happened that Conrad, Duke of Masovia, the part of Poland round Warsaw, was having trouble with the Prussians, a wild, heathen, Lithuanian race on the Baltic, and he invited the Teutonic Knights to come to his assistance. The Knights came on condition that they should hold for themselves all the territory they conquered, and in process of time conquered East Prussia. The Poles soon had reason to regret their invitation, for the Knights proceeded to appropriate Polish territory as well.

The immigration of German settlers was the outcome of the great Mongolian invasion of the thirteenth century. The Poles were indeed more fortunate than the Russians who had to pay tribute to the Golden Horde for centuries, but the Tartars devastated the Polish lands and after their withdrawal Germans were encouraged to come and settle in the vacant lands where numbers of towns sprung up with special privileges. About the same time also numbers of Armenians settled in Lemberg where they are still to be found. Jews in large numbers also settled in the Polish towns. As the Polish gentry despised trade very soon all the commerce of Poland passed into the hands of the Germans, the Armenians and the Jews. There was thus no Polish middle class such as was to be found at this time growing up in the western European countries.

Poland showed signs of growing importance in the beginning of the fourteenth century. Przemyslaw assumed the title of king in 1295, and in 1332 Wladislaus I, the "Span-long," defeated the Teutonic Knights. Casimir III added Galicia to Poland and introduced many reforms. But the most outstanding event in Polish History in the fourteenth century was the union of Poland with Lithuania and the accession of the dynasty of the Jagiellos. The Lithuanians first appear in history in the thirteenth century. They were of the Lettic stock and were a savage heathen people very like their neighbours and kinsfolk the Prussians. The conquest of the Prussians by the Teutonic Knights alarmed the Lithuanians. They gave up their primitive polity and adopted a monarchical form of Government. Their princes or grand-dukes, as they came to be called, were able men and soon created a Lithuanian State which included much of White Russia. Common hostility to the Teutonic Knights drew Poland and Lithuania together, and in 1386 a marriage was arranged between Jadwiga, the last representative of the Piasts, who had been elected Queen of Poland, and Jagiello, the Grand Duke of Lithuania. Jagiello, though his mother had been a Christian was himself a heathen, but he agreed to be baptised and soon most of his people followed his example.

The conversion of Lithuania put an end to the need for further crusades, but though the *raison d'etre* of the Teutonic Knights had been removed they had no intention of removing themselves from the Baltic Coast. War ultimately broke out and Jagiello, who on his baptism and accession to the Polish Crown had taken the title Wladislaus II, inflicted a crushing defeat upon them at Tannenberg in 1410, and took much of their territory for them. More than fifty years, however, elapsed before the Poles succeeded in humbling completely the power of the Teutonic Order. The Knights, however successful they might be as conquerors, were not successful as rulers. They cared only for their own selfish interests and gradually became extremely unpopular not only with the original Prussian inhabitants but even with the German immigrants. Their subjects revolted, formed the Prussian League, and appealed to Casimir IV the son of Jagiello who was then king of Poland. After years of warfare Casimir was at last successful. By the Second Treaty of Thorn in 1466, the Teutonic Knights handed over much of their territory to Poland, but were allowed to retain most of the present province of East Prussia with Königsberg as their capital as a Polish fief. At the time of the Reformation in 1525 the then Grand Master, Albert of Hohenzollern, secularised East Prussia and transformed it into a secular duchy with himself as sovereign. The change was permitted by King Sigismund who now became the suzerain of the Hohenzollern Duke of Prussia.

For nearly two hundred years the Jagiellos sat upon the throne of Poland. Most of them were monarchs of ability and they raised the power of Poland to its greatest height. In 1569 in the reign of Sigismund II the famous Union of Lublin was brought about by which Poland and Lithuania were firmly welded into a single state. From this time onwards, to quote the words of the statute, "the Crown of Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania is a composite and indivisible body, and also one composite and common republic, or the incorporation and welding together of two states into one nation." Lithuania was allowed to retain its old dignitaries but otherwise the union was complete. The members of the two states were to have equal rights, they were to have one sovereign lord elected in common, one diet and one currency. Warsaw was chosen as the seat of the diet and some years later superseded Cracow as the capital. The commonwealth thus created was called the Rzeszpospolita, the Polish form of *respublica*, and hence Poland, though to the end ruled by a king, is officially designated the Polish Republic.

Though the Jagiellos had done much in many ways to raise and strengthen Poland they had failed to establish a really strong central monarchy. Jealousy of the kingly power and a mistaken idea of liberty had already begun the evolution of that monstrosity the Polish constitution, which was to prove the ruin of the country that produced it. Space does not permit of my tracing the steps of its gradual evolution but its chief peculiar features must be described to understand the future history of Poland and the causes of its fall.

1. The monarchy was elective. An elective monarchy is not necessarily an evil but history teaches that it usually is. It tends to lead to civil war and to external interference. So long as there were Jagiellos in the male line its evils were not felt much, but in later times the gathering of the electors resembled a battlefield, and often a civil war had to decide which of two rival candidates was to be king. Further, all the neighbouring powers had their candidates and thus Poland came at last to be a mere puppet in the hands of her most powerful neighbour. Again the elective character of the monarchy gave the nobles an opportunity of continually diminishing the power of the king. Before a king was appointed he had to agree to the *pacta conventa*, a contract increasing the power of the nobility and limiting his own. It may be said that a limited monarchy is a good thing, but that depends upon who place the limits and upon how the power transferred is used. The Tudor despotism was better for England than the limited monarchy of Henry VI, and the nobles of Poland were more self-seeking and less public spirited than those of England.

2. Political power passed from the hands of the king and the senate—the magnates and great officers of state—into the hands of the nobles. The Polish nobles did not form an oligarchy but were, like the Spartans, an aristocratic democracy. The population of Poland was divided into three classes, nobles, burghers and peasants. All persons were nobles who had freehold land and did not engage in trade. Only nobles might wear swords and it is said that in the old days one might see in Poland a poor noble ploughing in his fields with an old sword fastened round his waist by a bit of string. All nobles were regarded as equals in spite of the existence of special titles. The peasants were partly free, partly attached to the soil, and as time went on their position became more depressed and they were

forbidden to hold land. The hatred that often existed between the Polish peasants and land-owners had no small share in bringing about the downfall of Poland. A change of owners, and perhaps a change for the better, was all that the partition of Poland meant to the peasant. The noble might not engage in trade and hence the townsfolk were mainly Germans, Jews and Armenians. There was, as has been mentioned, no Polish middle class, and hence no political power was given to the towns beyond occasional representation in the diet.

3. The body through which the *Szlachta* or nobility exercised its power was the *Sejm* or Diet. Originally this body met very infrequently and appointments were made to it by the Senate. As time went on the local *Sejmiki*, the diets of the provinces, took the appointments into their own hands. Latterly, as has been mentioned, the diet met at Warsaw and it had about six hundred members. It is in the reign of Sigismund II, in the first half of the sixteenth century that we find the *Szlachta* asserting its supremacy. Statutes were passed in 1527 transferring to the king and diet the powers hitherto exercised by the great officers of state, *e.g.* the levying of troops and the collecting of taxes. One extraordinary peculiarity of the diet must specially be noted. Owing apparently to some old Slavonic custom unanimity and not a mere majority was required for a decision. The impossibility of getting things done where such a rule prevailed made the kings again and again attempt to have it changed, but the nobles inspired by a mistaken idea of independence and an over-powering jealousy of the power of the king prevented any interference with their right to exercise the *liberum veto*. The danger to the State from the existence of the *liberum veto* was made still more manifest in 1651 when to protect a high-born malefactor, a single deputy 'exploded' the diet, that is, brought it to a premature conclusion by interposing his veto. From that date onwards it became a common occurrence to 'explode' the diet, and this power of the *liberum veto* became one of the most deadly weapons for the destruction of Poland, for all attempts to reform the constitution and thus to strengthen Poland could be stopped by the paid partisans of Prussia and Russia.

4. The *pacta conventa* and the *liberum veto* were enough in themselves to have rendered strong Government impossible but, as if in order that nothing should be lacking to ensure anarchy in the unhappy Republic, constitutional practice permitted discontented members of the Diet to form a "Confederation" or assembly in which resolutions might be passed by a majority in opposition to the Diet. Nay more, the coronation oath after 1572 expressly granted the right of rebellion to nobles who considered that the King had broken any of the *pacta* he had sworn to observe. A *rokosz* or insurrection was thus a recognised constitutional practice in Poland, and one of which the turbulent nobles were not slow to avail themselves.

Religious dissensions added not a little to the troubled conditions. Large numbers of the white Russians in Lithuania belonged to the Greek Church and though many of them in the sixteenth century became Uniates, that is became united to the Church of Rome while retaining some of their own characteristic differences of ritual, many of them still remained members of the Orthodox or Greek Church. At the Reformation many of the Germans became Lutherans, and opposition to the church made many of the *Szlachta* adopt the reformed faith. For a time it seemed as if Poland were to become Protestant. There was a Protestant majority in the diet and many of the magnates especially in Lithuania supported the Reformation. The kings, however, remained Catholic and a reaction set in. The Jesuits appeared in Poland, and under their fostering care the Counter-Reformation triumphed. For a time Poland showed a much needed example of toleration, but later under Jesuit influence a policy of persecution was adopted, and the treatment of the 'Dissidents' as the Protestants and the Orthodox were called became another weapon of attack in the hands of Prussia and Russia.

The death of Sigismund II the last of the Jagiellos in 1572 revealed and perhaps stimulated the development of the peculiarities of the Polish constitution. Forty thousand electors, encamped on a field near Warsaw, elected as their new monarch the French candidate Henry of Anjou, the brother of Charles IX of France who had just rendered himself infamous by the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day. To keep the new king in check the *pacta conventa* were drawn up and in his coronation oath the right of insurrection was recognised. Henry found that five months of the Polish crown were enough for him, and fled secretly from Cracow back to France where as Henry III, the last of the Valois, he ruled ignominiously for a time and fell a victim to the knife of a monkish assassin. Stephen Báthory, who succeeded him on the throne of Poland, was married to a Jagellio, and was a vigorous ruler. He increased the dominions of Poland at the expense

of Russia which was then in a weak condition, and it was he that first organised the Cossacks, the settlers in the far south, as a military force to defend Poland against her southern enemies. In the years that followed the Cossacks were not handled wisely with the result that they became a menace to the Republic and ultimately transferred their allegiance to the Tsar. The death of Báthory was followed by a severely contested election. The Lithuanians elected the Tsar, one Polish party chose the Emperor Maximilian, but the most popular candidate was Sigismund, the Prince Royal of Sweden whose mother was a *Jagellio*. After a good deal of fighting with Maximilian, Sigismund III was duly established on the throne.

Sigismund III though a member of the Protestant house of Vasa was a strong Roman Catholic —a fact which later on cost him the crown of Sweden—and put himself at the head of the Counter-Reformation movement in Eastern Europe. Except in Poland itself he was able to effect little, for from the date of his accession the *Szlachta* seemed to be more determined than ever to do nothing to make Poland strong externally. The beginning of the seventeenth century was as Mr. Nisbit Bain points out in his book on *Slavonic Europe*, the day of Poland's opportunity—but it was a lost opportunity—owing to the dread of interference with Polish liberty. "An unreasonable, incurable suspicion of the Crown, and all the executive instruments of the Crown is the characteristic, or rather the mania of every Polish Diet." "So far as they can be said to have had any policy at all, the *Szlachta* was in favour of absolute non-intervention in foreign affairs, as being the cheapest and least troublesome policy to pursue. The unwillingness with which the gentry of Poland parted with their money especially for armaments however necessary, was entirely due to the fear lest a popular monarch at the head of a victorious army, might curtail their privileges. Rather than run such a risk as this, they were ready to avoid every advantageous alliance, forego every political opportunity, stint their armies, starve and abandon their generals, and even leave the territories of the Republic unguarded and undefended." This was the experience of Sigismund and his two sons Wladislaus IV and John Casimir. In vain they attempted to reform the constitution, in vain they tried to strengthen Poland against the growing power of her hostile neighbours, Brandenburg, Sweden and Russia. In 1655 Poland was attacked by all three at once and it seemed as if her end had already come. But her enemies quarrelled and John Casimir was able to return to his dominions. The Elector of Brandenburg eagerly gave up his alliance with Sweden on condition that Prussia should be freed from its position as a vassal state of Poland and peace with Sweden and Russia was purchased by cessions of territory. It was after this war that John Casimir made his supreme effort to reform the constitution, and when he failed he abdicated and retired to France. In one of the stormy meetings of the Diet he foretold with accuracy the future dismemberment of Poland adding the mournful words "Would that I may turn out to be a false prophet!"

The House of Vasa was followed on the throne by two native Poles, Michael Korybut and John Sobieski. The reign of Sobieski contains the last gleam of light that illuminates the pervading gloom of later Polish history. The Turkish power had become a menace in southern Europe, and in spite of French intrigues Sobieski allied himself with the Austrians. In 1683 when a huge Turkish army under the Grand Vizier Kara Mustafa was besieging Vienna, Sobieski marched to the relief of the helpless city, defeated the Turks and drove them back into Hungary. But apart from this Sobieski's reign is like that of his predecessors a record of ineffectual attempts at reform. His failure contained an element of retribution, for as a young noble he had himself been foremost in fostering the anarchical spirit which with greater responsibilities resting on him he recognised to be the ruin of his country. Ere he died a broken hearted man in 1696 he foretold, like John Casimir, the impending fate of Poland.

The death of Sobieski gave rise to another of those "free elections" which the Polish nobles loved. Sobieski's son James, the father of Clementina who married the 'Old Pretender' and became the mother of Prince Charles Edward Stuart, was a candidate, but was rejected, as was also the French candidate the Prince of Conti. Augustus, the Elector of Saxony was the successful candidate. To obtain the throne he became a Catholic and thus surrendered the leadership of German Protestantism to the rising power of Brandenburg-Prussia, which soon became the Kingdom of Prussia. No business was done in the diet for it was regularly "exploded," but during his reign Poland was not free from war. Augustus attacked the youthful Charles XII of Sweden little knowing the kind of man with whom he had to deal. Charles replied by driving Augustus from his throne and setting up as king in his place the young Stanislaus

nothing and the treaty was kept secret from her for some time. It was declared to be accepted by Poland at the "Dumb Sitting" of the Diet of Grodno. No one spoke and after the sitting had lasted for many hours it was declared that silence gave consent.

The following is Mr. Nisbet Bain's characterisation of the Second Partition.—"The first partition of Poland has sometimes been plausibly defended as a regrettable necessity, but no sophistry in the world can extenuate the villainy of the second partition. The theft of territory is its least offensive feature. It is the forcible suppression of a national movement of reform, the hurling back into the abyss of anarchy and corruption of a people who, by incredible efforts and sacrifices, had struggled back to liberty and order, which makes this great political crime so wholly infamous. Yet here again the methods of the Russian Empress were less vile than those of the Prussian King. Catherine openly took the risks of a bandit who attacks an enemy against whom he has a grudge; Frederick William II came up, when the fight was over, to help pillage a victim whom he had sworn to defend."

The last scene in the tragedy was not long delayed. Poland was still nominally an independent kingdom, though reduced to a shadow of its former self, but in reality it was a Russian province ruled by a military despotism. Kosciuszko and many of the Polish patriots had fled to other countries. They had applied for help to the French Republic, but in vain, and had decided that they must wait for a better opportunity. Unfortunately a rising began in Poland. The Russian authorities knowing that there were conspiracies going on decided to disarm the Polish troops. This led to an outbreak and soon the whole country was in a flame. It was a truly national movement, but the patriotism and unselfish devotion now displayed were, like the reform of the constitution, too late to save Poland. Kosciuszko though he regretted the insurrection as premature felt that he must help his fellow-countrymen. He hurried to Cracow and soon was at the head of a large number of men. Prussia and Russia poured troops into Poland but for a time the Poles were successful. The Prussians were repulsed from Warsaw and were compelled to raise the siege, but the Russian army under the veteran general Suvarov proved too strong for the Poles, who were as usual weakened by internal dissensions. In October 1794 Kosciuszko was defeated, wounded and taken prisoner, and by the beginning of November Warsaw was in the hands of the Russians. During the storming of Praga, one of the suburbs of Warsaw, the Russians are said to have massacred twenty thousand of the civilian population, men, women and children. In April 1795 Stanislaus abdicated and retired to St. Petersburg where he died three years later. Kosciuszko was liberated by the Tsar Paul in 1796. He went to America for a time and then to France. His attempts to persuade Napoleon and later the Tsar Alexander to restore the Polish Republic were alike unsuccessful and he died in Switzerland in 1817.

All that remained to be done now was to make a final partition of the spoil. This proved to be no easy matter for Austria was determined that this time she should not be left out in the cold but should have her fair share of the booty. Catherine seems to have had a certain malicious pleasure in playing off the two German Powers one against the other, and this time she was inclined to favour Austria. The jealousy of Austria and Prussia over the Polish partition had important results in Western Europe. They were at war with the French Republic, but their preoccupation with Poland prevented them co-operating strenuously as members of the coalition against France. During 1794 Prussia though receiving a subsidy of £150,000 a month from Britain did so little that the subsidy was at last withdrawn. Next year to have her hands free for action she made the separate Peace of Basel with the French in which she conceded the French claim to annex the left bank of the Rhine. When the partition came to be made Prussia put forward such exorbitant demands that Russia and Austria disregarded her and made a Partition Treaty between themselves. Prussia refused at first to agree to the proposed distribution of the plunder and for a time it looked as if there might be war between the robber-powers, but at last she gave in and accepted her share. She obtained Warsaw and the surrounding territory with a population of about 1,000,000; Austria gained Cracow and the parts of Galicia which she had not yet absorbed, also with a population of about 1,000,000; Russia received in territory about as much as the Austrian and Prussian shares put together with a population of 1,200,000. To obliterate the memory of the existence of Poland as a political unit the three monarchs agreed that none of them would assume the title of King of Poland. Many patriotic Poles left their country and Polish exiles became common objects in Europe. In the main, the lot of the Poles under Russia was better than that of their brethren under the two German

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THADDEUS KOSCIUSZKO,
(Who fought in vain for the independence of Poland.)

POLISH KOSYNIER IN THE TIME OF KOSCIUSZKO.

THE TSAR'S RESCRIPT TO THE POLES.

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Poles! The hour has struck in which the fervent dream of your fathers and forefathers can be realised.

A century and a half ago the living body of Poland was torn in pieces, but her soul has not perished. It lives on in the hope that the hour of the renaissance of the Polish nation, of its fraternal reconcilation with Great Russia will come.

Russian troops bring you the glad tidings of this reconciliation.

May the frontiers be obliterated which split up the Polish nation. May it unite itself under the sceptre of the Russian Tsars.

Under this sceptre Poland will be born anew, free in her faith, her speech, and her self-government.

One thing only Russia expects from you—like regard for the rights of the nationalities with which history has connected you.

With open heart, with outstretched, brotherly hand, Great Russia approaches you. She believes that the sword which overthrew the enemy at Gruenwald has not rusted.

From the shores of the Pacific to the northern seas the Russian war forces are moving forward.

The dawn of a new life is opening upon you. May the Sign of the Cross shine forth from this dawning symbol of sufferings and resurrection of nations.

Powers which at once began that policy of repressing everything Polish which Prussia has continued to the present day.

France had always been friendly to Poland and many Poles took service in the French army, but the expectations they had of French help for the restoration of their country's independence were doomed to be disappointed. When Napoleon crushed Prussia at Jena in 1806 he deprived her of most of her Polish possessions, but he formed them into the Grand Duchy which he conferred on his ally the King of Saxony. In 1810 he deprived Austria of part of her share and added it to the Grand Duchy. When he invaded Russia in 1812 many thousands of Poles joined him, but he had now pledged himself to respect the integrity of the dominions of his father-in-law, the Emperor of Austria, and could hold out no hopes to the Poles of the restoration of their country. When after his fall the Powers meeting in conference at Vienna reconstructed the map of Europe the Grand Duchy of Warsaw was taken from Saxony. The Province of Posen was restored to Prussia; part of Galicia was given back to Austria; Cracow with the district round was formed into a little independent Republic; the rest of Poland was made into a constitutional monarchy of which Alexander I, the Tsar of all the Russias, was to be King. Alexander in spite of his position as autocrat was a man of liberal views, and probably he was sincere in his intention to be a constitutional King. Poland was to have its Parliament with responsible ministers, its own flag, its own army, and Polish was to be the official language. An amnesty was granted to all the Poles who had fought for Napoleon and Prince Adam Czartoryski the Polish patriot was the moving spirit in the formation of the new constitution.

On the continent of Europe the period following the Congress of Vienna was one of reaction and repression. Under the baneful influence of Metternich, and filled with dread of the ideas of the revolution, the monarchs of Europe sought to repress all liberal tendencies and all national aspirations. Alexander I as a member of "the Holy Alliance" could have hardly been expected to retain his liberal views, and soon Poland began to feel the results of the reactionary policy adopted in the West. The result was growing discontent followed by more repressive measures, and when Alexander I died and was succeeded by his brother Nicholas I, who had no sympathy with liberal ideas, it became fairly certain that there would be trouble. It came in 1830 when the success of the French Revolution of July encouraged popular risings in several other countries. Like the pistol-shot which has been the immediate cause of the present war the action which led to the Polish insurrection of 1830 and to the consequent ruin of Poland was the work of some foolish and misguided students. A plot was formed by them to seize the Grand Duke Constantine who was the Commander-in-Chief in Poland. The plot failed but led to a rising of the citizens of Warsaw. A general insurrection followed. Prince Adam Czartoryski was made Dictator and Prince Radziwill, Commander-in-Chief. The Poles, however, could achieve nothing against the overwhelming numbers of the Russians and no European power came to their help. Warsaw was taken in September 1831 and a heavy penalty was exacted. The constitution was abolished; Poland was reduced to the position of a Russian province and divided into governments administered by Russian officials; the national university at Wilno was suppressed, and many Poles were banished to Siberia.

When Russia was humbled by the Crimean War the Poles had hopes that something might be done for them, but as usual their hopes were disappointed. The accession of Alexander II, however, who emancipated the Russian serfs, and who was known to be a more sympathetic man than Nicholas, opened out prospects of better things for Poland. In 1861 a petition was sent to the Tsar asking for the restoration of the constitution. The Tsar did not grant this request but conceded a certain measure of local self-government and allowed Polish to be adopted as the language of the schools. The Poles, unpractical as ever, proceeded to put forward requests which they must have known would not be granted, and repaid Alexander for his concessions by forming conspiracies against the life of the Grand Duke Constantine. In 1863 the Russian government lost patience and struck an unexpected blow by suddenly seizing a large number of the disaffected Poles and forcibly enlisted them in the Russian army. At once risings took place all over the country but these were ultimately repressed with great severity. The Poles had no chance. They were not properly armed and many took no part in the insurrection. The peasants who had acquired land no doubt remembered that in "free" Poland they were not allowed to hold land, and felt that they were better off under the Russian government. At any rate they held aloof from the insurrectionary movement. Britain and France interceded for the Poles, but Prussia supported Russia in the repres-

sive policy, and thus began that friendship with Russia which was the key-note of Bismarck's foreign policy. Russia disregarded the wishes of the western Powers and they were not prepared to go to war with her over the Polish question. All the privileges that had been granted to Poland were swept away, and the use of the Polish language in schools and colleges was forbidden. Thus every attempt on the part of the Poles to regain their national independence has led only to greater attacks on their nationality. One may admire their courage but cannot give them credit for much political wisdom.

The last vestige of an independent Polish State disappeared in 1848, when the little republic of Cracow was annexed by Austria. The excuse was the troubled condition of Galicia in which there had been great peasant-risings against the Polish land-lords. It was shrewdly suspected that these risings had been engineered by the Austrian Government itself. Since 1867, when Austria after being turned out of Germany proceeded to set her house in order, the Poles in Galicia have been well-treated. They enjoy home rule, and Polish is the official language of the province. Very different has been the fate of the Poles in Prussia. Everything possible has been done there to repress their language and their nationality, and a systematic effort has been made to Germanise Prussian Poland. The attempt has failed, for the Poles multiply faster than the Germans and have clung tenaciously to their nationality. The hostility of the Prussian Poles to Germany may have important consequences in the course of the present war.

We may now in conclusion glance briefly at the possible future of Poland. At present as the result of the different partitions Prussia holds about 26,600 square miles of the old territories of Poland, Austria 35,000 and Russia 220,500 square miles. We know that on the assumption that Germany and Austria will be hopelessly defeated the Tsar proposes to recreate the kingdom of Poland by uniting its scattered fragments. But what exactly does this mean? Is Russia going to restore the purely Russian part of Lithuania with its Orthodox population to Catholic Poland? Does the Tsar contemplate taking from Prussia not merely the Polish provinces of Posen but also the whole of West Prussia and even German East Prussia which once was a Polish fief? Again though the Prussian Poles may gladly see themselves freed from their German oppressors, will the Galician Poles welcome a change which implies giving up their present autonomy for the somewhat dubious security which a Russian promise of freedom affords? The whole situation bristles with difficulties, and it is well for people to consider possible eventualities. Two points only seem clear. First it is not desirable to create an Alsace-Lorraine problem in the east of Europe in the name of ancient territorial rights. Second if a united Poland is created it must not be left like Finland to the caprices of the Russian autocracy, but must be called into existence and upheld by a guarantee of those Powers which still have some regard for treaties. It is good to learn from M. Hanotaux that eighteen years ago the present Tsar said to him 'I know what my duties are to my Slav brethren of Poland,' and that it was by his personal initiation that the use of the Polish language was restored; but the opposition of the Council of state to this decree only shows all the more the need of a European guarantee. Russia it is to be hoped will learn a lesson from the history of Germany and will see that the way to greatness is not along the road of military despotism but along that of social and political reform. And may we not hope that as the result of the horrors of the present war the peoples of Europe will demand with one voice that the nightmare of militarism shall cease? If that is the result, the lives and the treasure that must be expended in it will not have been spent in vain.

1

THE GROWTH OF MODERN GERMANY

BY N. M. MUZUMDAR, Bar-at-Law.

I. THE MAKING OF THE EMPIRE.

A growth similar to that of modern Germany has rarely been seen before in the history of the world. It has been one of the few meteoric events of history. It certainly has been one of the greatest political events of the nineteenth century. In five years after the Austrian defeat at Sadova an Empire was born in the heart of Europe, in spite of the clash and clang of interests that immediately surrounded it. Its progress was as unexpected as it was rapid. It took nations by surprise. They saw it coming but sat quiet and watched it grow, and the one among them that was bold enough to challenge it went under in the war of 1870. France was stunned. Austria had been smashed. No other power came in the way of this new Empire. Russia was busy in her Asiatic ambitions. Britain had refused to embroil herself in continental affairs. Nor did she have any conflict of interests with the newcomer. For, in Egypt, Bismarck had declared that he was English, which France was not. Amid such times the Empire grew, till it has become the German Empire of to-day, and has plunged Europe into the greatest and most terrible war the world has ever seen.

A soldier of fortune who fought for Charles the Great, sets up his family castle at Zollern. One of his successors becomes a Prince of the Holy Roman Empire. A subsequent successor becomes the Elector of Brandenburg. An Elector of Brandenburg becomes the King of Prussia. And the King of Prussia becomes the German-Emperor of to-day. After transforming Prussia the Hohenzollerns transform Germany, and perhaps it is no injustice to them to say that they now aspire to transform Europe, and, if possible, the world. A group of small states in central Europe in the beginning of the 19th century, led by Prussia, becomes at the end of the century a great Empire and a leading European power. This century finds it growing still more, dominating Europe, and asserting its position as a world power. How far it will succeed in its pretensions will depend on the issues of this great war. But looking backward along the century that is past, it may not be uninteresting and unprofitable to trace the growth of this extraordinary, ambitious, and military Empire of Europe.

The Holy Roman Empire, which in the later period of its life consisted of a conglomeration of numerous and practically independent sovereign States in central Europe, came to an end in the great Napoleonic convulsion. The central authority of the Empire had almost ceased to be, as the authority of its individual States increased. And Napoleon had little difficulty in arranging and re-arranging at will the face of central Europe. Prussia had grown out of the Electorate of Brandenburg, and had grown big in her surroundings. Austria was bigger still and more powerful. But none of the States of the Empire were strong enough to stand against the Dictator of Europe, nor were they concerted enough to resist him. The Holy Roman Empire broke up finally in 1806, when Napoleon smashed Prussia at the battle of Jena, and created the Confederation of the Rhine under his protection and complete control. The retreat from Moscow in 1813 and the defeat at Waterloo, however, broke up the Confederation of the Rhine, and the Congress of Vienna that followed, created in its place the German *Bund*, or the Germanic confederation. The restoration of the old Empire was impossible. The only thing that could be done was to piece together the broken parts of central Europe by the slender ties of a confederation. But the fragments remained, and for fifty years afforded high political game on the chessboard of Europe, almost till the formation of the German Empire in 1871.

The history of Prussia from the fall of Napoleon was one of steady and continuous growth, at first by leading the North German States and forming with them a Customs Union; then by driving its rival Austria out of the Germanic Confederation, created by the Congress of Vienna, and creating a confederation of its own; and lastly by uniting the North German States into the German Empire by the Franco-Prussian War.

The Confederation created by the Congress of Vienna in 1815 had as its visible embodiment the Confederation Diet for dealing with affairs common to all, particularly international relations, and

was presided over by the envoy of Austria. An important provision of the Act of Confederation was, that constitutional government was to be established everywhere. But little was done in this respect by the members of the Confederation till the Revolution of 1848. The most active member of the Confederation was Prussia. From 1815 to 1848 Prussia set herself to the task of founding and gradually building up a system of commercial unity by means of a Customs Union. When the Confederation was created in 1815, there were in the Germanic territories no fewer than 38 customs frontiers with hostile tariffs. Within Prussia herself there were 57 different local tariffs. These tariffs, she swept away in 1818. The States adjoining her frontier joined in a customs arrangement. Ten years later in 1828 the Southern German States of Bavaria and Wurtemburg formed a Customs Union. It was only a matter of five years when the Prussian and Southern Unions were amalgamated and what is known as the *Zollverein* (a customs union) was finally formed. This master-stroke on the part of Prussia destroyed once and for all, the chances of success of any separatist unions. And the result was that by 1848 most of the other German States had entered the *Zollverein*. At the same time Prussia deliberately managed to keep Austria outside the Union. Austria's attempts to create a *Zollverein* of her own failed, Prussia eventually making a tariff treaty with her on condition that she remained outside the *Zollverein*. The effects of the abolition of tariff barriers in this way was to stimulate home industries, and to diminish the importation of foreign goods. Germany had become by 1848 at least an economic entity.

The revolution of that year in France heaved all Europe. There were revolutions everywhere. In Germany particularly there had been a widespread discontent. The constitutions promised by the Congress of Vienna had not been given. People rose not only in Prussia but in the smaller States and Austria as well, and demanded constitutional Government. The Diet of the Confederation met, and arranged for the calling of a National Assembly charged with the task of drawing up a constitution for all Germany. The Assembly drew up a Charter of the People. A new constitution was voted which established a German Empire. The Imperial Crown was offered to the King of Prussia, who, however, refused to "pick up a crown from the gutter." The attempt of the Assembly to force the constitution on the people failed. And Prussia and Austria withdrew from the Assembly, neither of them wanting an Empire in which the presence of the other would be not only a source of irritation but of weakness.

The rivalry of Prussia and Austria in the Confederation had gradually grown till it had become too great for either of them to live in the same house. Prussia, at any rate, had determined to form the Confederation into a German Empire under its own leadership, leaving Austria completely out. As a beginning she joined Saxony and Hanover and created a new Union with the Prussian King as its head, and called upon the other States to join it. Austria was at that time engaged in suppressing the Hungarian rebellion. When she had finished that, she hurriedly brought together the dispersed representatives of the Confederation in order to re-establish it. Two rival organizations faced each other, and Prussia and Austria were almost on the verge of war. But Austria had just received help from Russia in putting down the Hungarian rebellion. Prussia gave way. The Confederation was revived. And Prussia's first attempt to create a united Germany under its leadership failed.

The power of the Confederation, however, declined. The strength of Prussia developed with her growing economic development, and told in the final struggle for supremacy with Austria. In 1861 the soldier-King William I. ascended the throne of Prussia. For five years he worked ceaselessly at remodelling and strengthening the whole army. In the very next year after he ascended the throne he appointed Bismarck as Chancellor of Prussia. Bismarck's first objective was Austria. And he soon began manoeuvring to get her out of the Confederation. In 1863 Prussia and Austria had together marched against Denmark, and had occupied the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. The difficulties of settling the ownership of the Duchies followed. They became acute. Prussia declared war on Austria. Austria declared that under the constitution the Confederation had to decide the dispute. Prussia replied by refusing to recognise any longer the Confederation. In seven weeks Prussia defeated and crushed Austria, and drove her from the affairs of Germany. She crushed at the same time the old and infirm Confederation, and set up the North German Confederation instead, under her own single leadership. The South German States that had fought by the side of Austria recognised also the dissolution of the old Confederation; and four of them, Bavaria, Wurtemburg, Baden and Hesse, went so far as to conclude a secret offen-

sive and defensive alliance with Prussia, undertaking in case of war to put their armies at her disposal. It was not more than four years before Bismarck utilised them against France. In the new North German Confederation, Prussia not only presided, but hers was the command of the armies of the various States, the right to declare war, and the representation of the Confederation abroad. Within a few weeks of the defeat of Austria, 21 German States joined the new Confederation.

The growth of Prussia sent a thrill through Louis Napoleon. He demanded compensation of German territory, and attempted to secure Luxemburg, which formerly was a part of the Germanic Confederation. Bismarck produced the secret alliances with the South German States. And Louis Napoleon was warned off. The Duchy of Luxemburg was, however, created into a neutral State, under the protection of the Powers, but remaining still (to this day) within the German Customs Union.

In 1870 a new cause of dispute arose between France and Prussia over the Spanish Succession. A Hohenzollern Prince, with the approval of the King of Prussia, became a candidate for the Spanish throne. Louis Napoleon vehemently objected to this, and the Prussian Prince withdrew his candidature. Louis Napoleon was, however, bent on humiliating Prussia, and crushing it before it grew stronger. He demanded of the Prussian King to give an undertaking that never would a Prussian Prince stand as a candidate for the throne of Spain. King William promptly refused such an undertaking. France declared war. It was exactly what Bismarck wanted. And King William hailed the war which would bring about "the liberty and unity of Germany." In the campaign that followed the South German States stood by Prussia according to their agreement of 1866. Germany with a million and a half men gained successive victories at Worth, Saarbrucken, Mars-le-tour, and Gravelotte. At Sedan, Louis Napoleon surrendered. Germany asked for Alsace-Lorraine. The French Government refused, and Paris was beseiged. In January 1871 the French Government negotiated for peace. France agreed to cede the two provinces and give an indemnity of £200,000,000. The triumph of Prussia was the unification of Germany. The same month William I was proclaimed Emperor of Germany at Versailles.

Twenty-five German States contracted at Versailles a permanent union as the German Empire, "for the protection of the unified territories," and "for the purpose of fostering the welfare of the German people." The final barriers between State and State were broken. A strong central government at the same time was created. One of the fundamental laws of the new Empire was that "Imperial laws should take the precedence over those of other States." The Imperial Government acquired control over the Army and Navy, the making of war and peace and foreign treaties, the customs, Imperial taxes, Commercial and Penal Codes, Coinage and Bank matters, Posts and Telegraphs, Railways and Canals, emigration and colonization, the supervision of industries, the encouragement and protection of commerce, the insurance of workmen, shipping, and diplomatic and consular representation. In the Federal Council, the *Bundesrath*, out of 58 representatives, 17 were to be the representatives of Prussia. Commensurate with her size and population a similar preponderance in the *Reichstag* followed. Thus the conglomeration of German States, independent still in many respects, agreed at Versailles to transfer their common interests to the Empire, presided over by the King of Prussia as the hereditary German Emperor.

During the 43 years that have elapsed, Germany has by a succession of Imperial laws brought closer together the various Federated States, and identified their population with the German Empire. In the seventies, the Imperial and political power was consolidated, and the ground was prepared for industrial development. In the eighties industrial growth was already visible, and colonies were acquired. In the nineties, there was a great commercial and maritime expansion. That expansion has been maintained at a growing rate in the present century, and a group of States that pieced themselves together in 1866, and formed an Empire in 1871, saw themselves at the close of the century in the position of a great continental power, which, in this century, has been trying to assert its position as a world power. The whole history of the German Empire is the history of the transformation of Germany by Prussia, by Prussian politics, Prussian diplomacy, Prussian Military Service, Prussian realism, and the Prussian cult of Power. Moltke, von Roon, William I, were the agents who transfused Prussia into Germany. But the maker of the German Empire of to-day was—Otto von Bismarck.

II. THE INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT OF GERMANY.

THE close of the nineteenth century witnessed Germany not only in the position of a first class political power, but in the rank also of a first class industrial power. Behind her political growth there had been a corresponding industrial and commercial development. She was an economic unit long before she was a political entity. For, the economic unification of the various German States was of as great an importance as the political creation of the Empire. Every step in her political growth followed a step in her economic development. And when once she had achieved her political unity, she set about raising herself further in the economic scale.

The main factors directing her national policies are the needs of her population. Germany increases at the rate of over 800,000 persons a year. In 1871 her population was 41 millions. It is about 68 millions to day. This rapidly increasing population can be supported within Germany only by an expansion of industry and commerce. Outside Germany it could be supported by emigration to colonies or to foreign countries. There are, however, only 20,000 Germans in German colonies, and most of the outflow goes to foreign countries. The strength of the German Empire depends on the strength of its army; and an overflow from Germany to foreign countries tends to diminish the strength of an army recruited under compulsory service. The rate of increase of population, the overflow to foreign countries, and the expansion of industry and commerce, have, therefore, gradually evolved the growth of a German world policy.

The basis of the industrial development of Germany was laid by Prussia during all the years that she was working for German unity between 1806 and 1870. She first of all abolished serfdom within her own territories by the emancipatory Edict of 1807, and created a proprietory peasantry. The other German States followed suit and abolished serfdom between 1808 and 1850. Land was redivided, and agriculture improved with the freedom of the serf, and the improved methods of cultivation. Prussia then took the lead in industrial freedom by abolishing the exclusiveness of the guilds. And in this again the other German States followed. The next step was the abolition of tariff barriers in which again Prussia led. She abolished first the 57 local tariffs within her own territories, thus securing her home market for her own industries, and preparing the necessary ground for large-scale production. In this reform again the other German states followed. Between 1819 and 1834 three large free trade areas were formed, which were eventually absorbed by Prussia into one large customs union, the *Zollverein*. Thus the economic unity of Germany was acheived to a considerable extent as early as in 1834, and the results were the growth of German industry, and an increase in general prosperity. The *Zollverein* grew, made a tariff treaty with Austria, without including her in the Union; and by 1862 was strong enough to enter into a commercial treaty with France. On the formation of the Empire, the control of German industry and commerce went to the Imperial government, which furthered it by a series of Imperial laws.

From 1871 to the present day German industry and commerce have grown at an ever increasing rate. As Prussia led Germany before the war, so Germany has been leading on the continent after the war, leaving France behind in the second place. In 1872 the trade of Germany was for £280,000,000. In 1913 it was for over £ 1,000,000,000.

Many causes have combined to bring about this rapid advance of Germany to an industrial power. Foremost among them is of course her possession of valuable stores of mineral wealth. She has, first of all, the largest known reserves of coal in Europe, and coal means power in the modern world. It is estimated that, at the rate of her present output (160 million metric tons a year) she has coal for 1,300 years. Side by side with coal she has iron. And coal and iron are the basis of all modern industrial development. The production of iron has been extraordinarily rapid. In the eighties, Germany produced from 3 to 4½ million tons a year. In 1911 she produced 15¼ million tons, Great Britain producing 10¼ and America 23¾ million tons. The industrial growth of Germany has not come in the way of her agricultural development. Roughly speaking one half of her surface is arable, and by various enactments she has safeguarded the interests of the agrarians. And Germany is also very rich in forests.

These resources have been methodically developed by a definite economic policy of protection on the one hand, and of organization and encouragement of industries on the other. Agriculture and industries were protected by tariffs. Railways and canals were nationalised and developed as a part of the protectionist policy.

Education, secondary, technical and commercial, was highly developed, and acted as a powerful influence in industrial growth and in the scientific organisation of industry and commerce. State protection was given to the worker by elaborate legislation and by the system of State insurance against sickness, invalidity, accidents and old age. Shipping was also encouraged, and colonies founded.

The protectionist policy of the German Empire began in 1878. In 1879 the tariff was revised and raised. In the eighties, there were successive increases of duties on agricultural products, because of the influx of American corn. In 1903 again the duties were raised all-round, especially on agricultural goods.

Transport facilities were developed, and Germany was unified by *railways*. The railways were nationalised and systematically developed with the object of promoting the unity of the Empire, preventing the hindrance of traffic, promoting German industry by low railway rates, and preventing local discrimination. Prussia at first bought up the railways in her own territories. And to prevent her from buying up their railways the other States bought up their lines in their own territories. A uniformity of system has been largely attained. The principle of "special rates" has been extended to assist agriculture and industry, by granting cheap rates to raw materials. Special rates have likewise been extended for assisting the home market in case of German goods, and for assisting the German ports and German exporters by low charges to the sea-board. The Imperial Government has the right to exercise supervision over the railways of all the States for purposes of defence and general traffic facilities. The State direction of railways has made it possible to apply differential rates to special localities and special industries the conditions of which made preference desirable. The net yield of German railways in spite of special rates amounted in 1911 to £36,000,000; and allowing a deduction of 3½ per cent. interest on capital outlay, there was a clean profit of £16,000,000 for public purposes.

The development of the *waterways* and *canals* have contributed to an equal extent to Germany's economic efficiency and growth. It went on side by side with the development of the railways. Germany has been increasing the number of canals and improving the old waterways at enormous expenditure. At the same time the old canals have been entirely rebuilt for large steamer traffic. The result attained has been cheap water transport for heavy traffic, which is particularly important in a country with a small coast line. Goods can now be sent from the mouth of the Rhine direct by water to Switzerland or France in one direction, and to Bavaria and Austria in the other. The canal system has also been of immense importance in the development of inland towns, and river and sea-ports.

The growth of German *shipping* has been as remarkable as that of other German industries. It was only in 1881 that the Imperial Government decided to encourage it and in 1885 the first postal subsidy was granted. To-day, the German mercantile marine stands second in the world, and German ship-building yards are unable to carry out all the orders they receive. No other subsidies except postal have been granted. But the construction of ships has been assisted to some extent by the giving of low railway and canal freights for the transport of German goods for ship-building. In thus encouraging the building up of a mercantile marine the Imperial Government did not perhaps lose sight of the creation by this means of a naval reserve, of armed merchantmen in time of war, and of a means of favouring home industries.

One great characteristic that has helped Germany in industrial and commercial growth is the faculty for *organisation* and *co-operation* instilled in the German mind by the system of compulsory military service. One of the most striking features of German industries is the enormous growth of large highly organised undertakings. These are particularly strong in the coal, iron, steel, and electrical and chemical industries, as also in huge retail stores, and serve to eliminate competition and afford greater economy in working. The same growth is seen in financial and commercial enterprises. The "cartels" and "syndicates," which are features of German commercial life, are undertakings of the same sort which have joined together to eliminate and limit competition and waste, and by co-operation to secure advantages that none of them could individually reach. Some of these cartels and syndicates have powerfully stimulated foreign trade. Side by side with the growth of industries, there has also been an extraordinary development of the production and distribution of cheap electric power. One company alone supplies a considerable part of Germany with power that could be practically switched off and on from its office in Berlin.

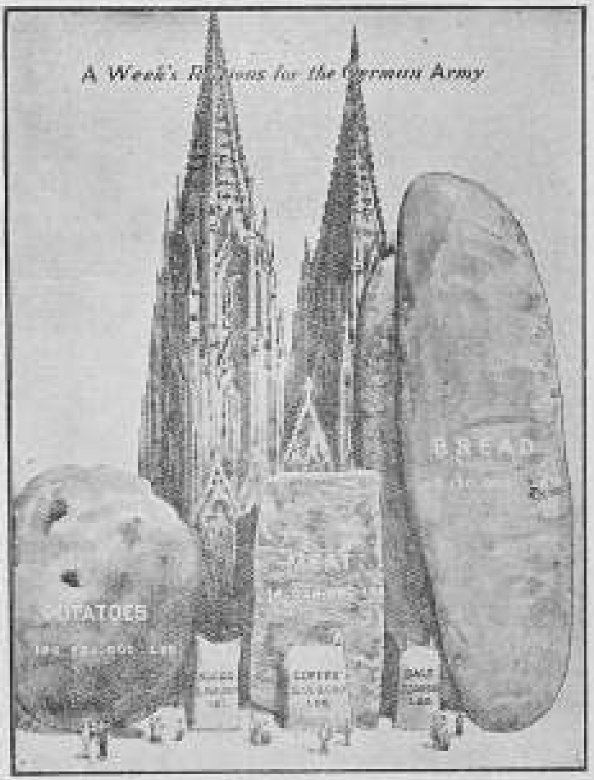
With the development of the organisation of capital and industries, went the development of *organised labour*. Gigantic trade unions sprang

up, unions which discouraged independent local organisations, as is the mode in England, but united the workers in a small number of large and powerful federations. In spite of Governmental and local action in education, the German unions have taken upon themselves the task of creating, both by money and voluntary service, an educated and public spirited working class, under the firm belief that knowledge alone would give it permanent strength. The labour organisations of large towns in fact maintain working men's colleges which hold evening classes, and organise courses of instruction on various scientific, economic and even historical and philosophical subjects. They also establish free libraries and reading rooms and reading circles, all with the object of making labour more efficient and more self-reliant, and adding to its intelligence and dignity. Some of these big trade unions have even stimulated investigations in wages, hours and the conditions of labour in various industries. The Metal Workers' Federation, for instance, recently published a most elaborate history and description of the iron industry, bearing particularly on the labour employed in it. The Unions control more than a hundred newspapers, and have trade journals of their own. They also have their own public information and advice agencies. There are nearly a thousand such free agencies for instructing the ordinary labourer on the duties of citizenship, thus removing his ignorance and getting him to understand his rights and obligations.

The Government too has been no less anxious about *the welfare of the worker*. It inaugurated a system of State Insurance as early as in 1883, which has gradually been developed and extended. Insurance is compulsory for practically all persons who earn less than £ 100 a year. There is sickness insurance, for which the workman pays ⅔ of the subscription and his employer ⅓. The benefits are free medical attendance, and a maximum of 26 weeks allowance of half the wages. The workers themselves have a share in the management of the insurance organisation. Then there is compulsory insurance against accidents, for which the employer pays the insurance subscription, and invalidity and old age insurance for which workman and employer pay in equal shares, the state adding £ 2½ every year to each pension.

The material progress of Germany has to a large extent been influenced by its system of *education*, which has aimed at drawing out the character and qualities of the German man and woman essential for the development of national wealth. One of the features of the German system of education is the increasing prominence given to "modern" subjects in preference to the "classics." Primary education is free and compulsory. Primary schools are local. The secondary schools are under Provincial Boards. And the Universities are national and directly under the Minister of Education. In the secondary schools considerable attention is paid to the teaching of national and modern history down to the latest date, including the general, social and economic development of the country, the object aimed at being to stimulate greater practical ability and impart less abstract knowledge. All the branches of education are moreover co-ordinated. Primary education is not completed till the scholar has a course at one of the "continuation" schools teaching the practical work of life in various departments, industrial, agricultural, and commercial. Employers are bound to allow their workmen under 18 to attend continuation schools, and their women and girl workers to attend handwork and domestic economy schools. German industrial development has also been greatly stimulated by the methods of technical education which have been scientifically organised. Industries have been fostered by applying to them highly developed technical skill and scientific knowledge. The State has provided a great many large laboratories at enormous cost for investigation and research. Commercial education has also been largely stimulated. In fact, the systematic organisation and co-ordination of secondary, technical and commercial schools has powerfully influenced the whole growth of German industry and commerce. All such education is moreover remarkably cheap.

The causes of the industrial development of Germany are, therefore, various and many. Foremost among them might be placed the German character of thoroughness, organisation and adaptability. These are perhaps instilled in the German mind by the military service that every German undergoes. Such training has at any rate tended to develop to an enormous degree his faculty for organisation and co-operation. The industrial and commercial classes of every kind of undertaking have adopted and extended the principle of association to foster industry and foreign trade. Small people who could not incur great expense have joined together for common ends. The "export unions" are, for instance, a feature of German trade. The organisation of cartels and syndicates, of the financial and banking system, of big labour unions that strive to raise themselves the efficiency of labour,



A WEEK'S RATIONS FOR THE GERMANY ARMY.

The question of subsistence is a vital one to an Army and many battles have been lost from the failure of food supplies. Taking the Standard ration of the German Army as a basis our illustration shows the supply necessary with the huge mass of Colougne Cathedral. The result is very surprising for we have a loaf of bread weighing 60,130,000 lbs. and 393 ft. high. Meat is represented by a side of bacon but in practice this might be varied by sausage, beef or mutton. The bacon is 180 ft. long and would weigh 16,030,000 lbs. Potatoes are the heaviest item weighing 120,330,000 lbs. and the gigantic tuber shown in the illustration would be 188 ft. high; while the sugarbag would measure 36 ft. high, and would weigh 1,385,000 lbs.

Scientific American.

THE NEW RAKE'S PROGRESS.

* THE KAISER AS THE FOE OF HUMANITY.

The Kaiser "Who goes there?"

Spirit of Carnage "A friend, your only one?"

* From the *Punch*.

of the educational system that trains and equips an industrial population, and unites science with practice; the protection accorded to industry and agriculture by tariffs; the assistance accorded to industry and commerce by the State, chiefly by the nationalised and developed means of transport, the railways and the canals;—all these have joined together in the making of German industry and commerce. And more than that. The German manufacturer has spared no efforts to meet in all respects the means, the tastes, and the convenience of his customers in all parts of the world. In a word, the industrial and commercial growth of Germany is very largely due to the highly developed methods of education, production and distribution.

If the organisation and development of German industry and commerce merits any credit, credit is to be given where credit is due, even to an enemy. If we can learn some lessons from it, let us welcome them. And if we at all want to have a share in "capturing German trade," or at any rate want to build up our own, it is just as well, and more profitable too, to examine first the *foundations* on which German growth is based, the one and many lines on which it has grown, analyse the ways in which it has been fostered, the means by which it has been developed; prepare our ground, lay down our lines, organise our means of production, and *thus* develop the resources which Nature has bestowed in such plenty upon us.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

BY

MR. N. M. MUZUMDAR, BAR-AT-LAW.

THE past weighs heavily on some countries. It has weighed most heavily on Austria-Hungary. In fact the political, diplomatic and military events of the middle ages are still the dominating factors in Austro-Hungarian policies. And its race distribution is as old as the mountains and rivers that divide and disintegrate the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

From the 13th century downwards, there were four different Kings in the valley of the Danube struggling for supremacy,—the Kings of Bohemia, Hungary, and Bavaria, and the Archdukes of Austria proper. In 1526 the struggle ended, and the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia, including all the territories of Silesia, Moravia, Transylvania, Croatia, Slavonia and Dalmatia, passed to the rulers of Austria, who throughout the 15th and 16th centuries had maintained a vigorous and persistent foreign policy in directing the affairs of central Europe. The result was that as early as in 1526 the Austrian Empire consisted of a large number of heterogeneous peoples and races, each with its own ambitions, its own traditions, its own language, and its own institutions and privileges. During the 17th and 18th centuries there were great international wars in which Austria was engaged successively with the Turk, the Swede, with Louis XIV, Louis XV and Frederick the Great, in the French Revolution, and with Napoleon. The Austrian conglomeration with all its disruptive elements kept united in the face of dangers that threatened its very existence, and thus remained free from any internal disturbances.

Once the international wars were over by 1815 Austria began to turn its attention to the problems at home. But the exhaustion of two centuries was hardly conducive to any effort to solve them. Once she had attempted to solve them by a drastic and violent process of Germanization between 1780 and 1790. But that had completely failed. The Holy Roman Empire in which she led, fell in 1806 when Napoleon created the confederation of the Rhine under his control. After Waterloo, the Congress of Vienna constructed the Germanic confederation, in which again, with the growth of Prussia, Austrian power and influence declined. Much less, therefore, was it possible after the Revolutionary era to adapt the process of Germanization. And each constituent part of the Empire began to strive and work out its own problems in its own way, particularly after the wave

of nationalism in 1848. In the Austro-Hungarian history of the last hundred years, two great figures stand out,—the statesman Metternich, and the present Emperor Francis Joseph. The one put his foot down on every aspiration. While the other, after bitter experiences and trying disasters, has learnt to try and solve to some extent, in his own way, the ever increasing internal problems of Austria-Hungary. The retreat of Turkey from Europe and the rise of the Balkan Powers, has only served to make these problems more acute than they ever were.

For thirty years after Waterloo, Metternich was Dictator in Austria; and all was peace and quiet. But it was only the long calm that preceded the storm. The revolution of '48 at first heaved France, and then surged all over Europe. It flung Ferdinand, the half imbecile Emperor of Austria, from his throne. Piedmont declared war. Ferdinand fled to England. His brother, Francis Joseph's father, renounced the title. The earth was quaking beneath the Austrian throne. There was a terrific storm all round. And it seemed that now the Hapsburg dynasty was about to end its days. At such a dark time, and in such black conditions a young lad hurried from the battlefield to save the crown and sit on the tottering throne. He has sat there ever since, with all the experience of bitter events has tried to remove some of the thorns and spikes, till now, the ground shakes again and there is another European earthquake.

The young lad had grown up under the shadow of a towering figure—Metternich, whose policy was but a negation of all light. In the war with Piedmont, Austria won. The revolts in Bohemia and Hungary that accompanied it were put down with little mercy, and the mobs in Vienna with plenty of grape-shot. And Francis Joseph began to rule. The dictatorship of a statesman was succeeded by the despotism of an Emperor. He tore up old privileges and local rights, and made short work of Hungarian claims. He refused to recognise Hungary; and Hungary refused to recognise him. A terrible civil war followed. With the help of Czar Nicholas the Hungarian rebellion was crushed, and Hungary drowned in blood. For ten years Francis Joseph ruled the Austrian Empire from Vienna with absolutism and bayonets.

But from 1859 to 1866 the stars changed their course. It was the most tragic period of the Empire's life. In 1858 Cavour and Louis Napoleon had secretly met. Cavour had been long dreaming of a United Italy. But Italian unity could not be acheived till the last Austrian had been driven out of it. Cavour worked Napoleon round, and arranged for a simultaneous attack on Austria the following year. As arranged, the French armies swept down upon Austria, and Napoleon stood victorious on the field of Solferino. But it was at enormous cost. The "little" Napoleon reeled before the carnage of the battle-field, hastily concluded peace with Austria on the terms of the surrender of Lombardy to Italy, and returned to Paris, leaving Cavour burning with rage, and Italy to wait for another day to complete its unification. The very next year, however, by a united effort Austria was driven out of Italy, and Italian unity was practically won. For Francis Joseph, the events of 1859 and 1860 were a terrible lesson learnt at the cost of the jewel of Lombardy. He granted a constitution to Austria, and from that time changed into a less reactionary and more progressive ruler.

During all these years the relations of Austria and Prussia were those of rivals in the great Germanic confederation of which both were the dominant members. But it was becoming more and more clear every day that both could not lead the one and many small states and smaller principalities. The Austrian lead was, moreover, losing its strength, there being so much to occupy Austria in the south. Prussia had on the other hand asserted itself in the meantime among the North German States. It was obvious that a common tariff could alone bind the Germanic States at least into an economic entity. Prussia had therefore formed with the North German States the *Zollverein*, a Customs Union. And from such a Union, Austria was deleberately excluded. When Bismarck came on the scene he determined to end this old rivalry by force of arms, and drive Austria out of the confederation. He managed to pick a quarrel over the Danish Duchies (Schleswig and Holstein) which were acquired some time before by the confederation. The result was the Prusso-Austrian War of 1866. In seven weeks Austria stood defeated and torn at Sadova. She was driven from the confederation, and in addition lost Venetia to Italy. Prussia, on its part, formed and led the North Germanic confederation, and four years later after the Franco-Prussian war united it into the German Empire. Bismarck was, however, careful not to take an acre of Austrian territory when he could have taken all Bohemia. A conflict with the French was inevitable, and Austrian neutrality would mean a good deal then. The war of 1870 came,

Napoleon fell at Sedan. His hopes of Austrian help had fallen too, for Bismarck had already obtained a secret promise from the Czar that if Austria entered the field against Prussia, Russia would support Prussia.

The disaster of 1866 opened Francis Joseph's eyes. The humiliation at Sadova and the defeat in foreign policy forced him to settle the differences at home. He made peace with Hungary. Hungary was granted a constitution, and Francis Joseph was crowned King of Hungary. A system of "delegations" was arranged for a common foreign policy, a common army, a common administration of finances like customs and debts, and the joint administration of the Imperial territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The reconciliation with Hungary has been perhaps the wisest piece of statesmanship in his reign.

By 1870 the era of disappointments and defeats and disasters was over. Austria was not only expelled from Germany and Italy, but was left without a friend in Europe. The only friends she could now have were her very enemies. Germany had come to stay. And Italy was now strong and united against her. In 1879 Germany and Austria formed an alliance, and three years later the Triple Alliance including Italy, though strange, was a fact.

Driven from the north, and south, the centre of gravity of the Austro-Hungarian Empire moved. Austria-Hungary began to look at the Balkans. In the Russo-Turkish War, Turkey had lost. And at the Congress of Berlin that followed Bismarck rewarded Austria with the provisional administration of the Turkish Provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, though Austria had not struck one blow for them. Bismarck's motives were plain. Austria had remained neutral in 1870. And Bismarck was also working for an alliance with her.

For thirty years after the Congress of Berlin there was peace in Europe. But in all that time the situation in the Near-East had hardly improved. It had even got worse. It was the gout in the European system that always persisted. Put down in one part it swelled up in another; and each time the swelling was worse. In 1908 Turkish suzerainty was overthrown by Bulgaria. Like Ferdinand of Bulgaria, Francis Joseph too tore up the Berlin Treaty. He annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina and bought off Turkey for two and a half million pounds. Russia was most bit-

AUSTRIA'S PROBLEM OF DISCORDANT RACES.

ter. She had fought the Russo-Turkish war and was robbed of its fruits. Servian hopes too were destroyed. But the Kaiser standing by Austria in "shining armour" warned Russia and Servia off. The Eastern question was, however, not to settle down thus. In 1911 the Balkans blazed up again, and this time the conflagration was general. The following year Turkey further receded from Europe. The Balkan allies then fought over the spoils, and Servia came out triumphant. The Balkan balance changed. The rise of Servia, and the possible growth of a great Slav Kingdom or a Balkan federation made Austria jealous and nervous about her influence in the Balkans. "Greater Servia" would bar her influence there, and would be a disintegrating wedge in her artificial conditions. Servian career, therefore, it thought, had be stopped. The murder of the Archduke was but an occasion for an ultimatum. And the Austro-Servian war has developed into a general European war.

WHAT IS AUSTRIA.

"Now Lieutenant, the Fatherland will soon call upon you."

LIEUTENANT: "What do you mean by that? My father was a Hungarian, my mother was a Pole, and I was born in the Tyrol."

"You must take a larger view of the Fatherland: it is the House of Hapsburg."

It will be interesting to watch if, and how, and in what shape, the polyglot empire of Austria-Hungary containing Germans, Czechs, Italians, Magayrs, Poles, Ruthanians, Croatians and Slavonians will survive the great upheaval of 1914. Though the sentiment of solidarity has certainly grown to some extent in Francis Joseph's reign, during the last few years, particularly, he has had incessant political and racial worries to keep peace among his distracted and divided subjects. The feud between Germans and Czechs in Bohemia, between Poles and Ruthanians in Galicia, between Magayrs and Slavs in Hungary, and between Germans and Italians in the Tyrol still continues. Hungary has wanted more and more—universal suffrage, in fact. Bohemia has wanted a Kingdom for itself such as Hungary has. There has been constant trouble with the southern Slavs since the rise of the Balkan powers. Further south, there has been trouble with the million Italians in the Tyrol. It is difficult to judge how far and to what extent these warring elements will unite in the face of the present overwhelming struggle. It is likely that the Poles and the Slavs will try to keep aloof. But it is doubtful if Bohemia and Hungary will tend to disunite and split up the Dual Monarchy. And, added to all these difficulties at home, comes the breaking of the Italian link in the Triple Alliance.

If Francis Joseph has been in himself a piece of European history, it is a piece tinged with blood which his wisdom in after years has tried to wash and clean. It is a piece that is also darkened by tragedies. However, amid all the disasters and tragedies of his life, with the lessons of bitter experience during his long years, Francis Joseph has undoubtedly attempted to do some constructive work and bring about some degree of cohesion in one of the most heterogeneous empires that has been ruled by an Emperor. But events are greater than men. The Austro-Hungarian Empire is on its gravest trial. How it will emerge from this gigantic struggle, it is difficult to say. If it comes out successful and intact, it will be a miracle. If it fails and breaks, it will be the crowning event of a long life of defeats and disasters and tragedies.

SUPERMAN AND MACHTPOLITIK

BY

PROF. K. B. RAMANATHAN, M.A.

Of Pachaiyappa's College, Madras.

A Friend of Havelock Ellis under the influence of nitrous oxide found himself face-to-face with the Almighty. Of a philosophic temperament, he asked God: "Why have you placed us here? For what purpose have you submitted us to all this strife and misery? What is the solution of the riddle of life?" Then came in one word the awful reply: "Procreation."

As to the adequacy of the answer to the question put, different people may hold different views. To Dr. Hermann Oncken* the fateful word, procreation, the fecundity of the German race, that is, seems the real explanation of the foreign policy of Germany after William II became virtually his own Chancellor. The increase of German population and the industrial development of Germany make expansion absolutely a necessity. The need for expansion, says the Heidelberg Professor, has no connection with a military craving for conquest. If the remarks of the German Emperor appeared now and then too bellicose, it was only his manner of stating his ideas in a picturesque fashion.

With the lurid fact of the war before us, it would appear that Dr. Oncken had no contact with the real forces at work in shaping and effectuating German policy. Von Bernhardi and Prince Von Bulow seem to have expressed the true mind of Germany better. They had no doubt as to what Germany must do. War, open or understood, must be carried on. These exponents of German policy must feel happy now. We are in the throes of a world-war initiated by Germany.

Whoever has heard of the German has heard of his thoroughness. The German mind is not satisfied unless between the *praxis* and the *theorie* there be the closest nexus demonstrated. No link must be missing of the according concatenation. The ought to be done and the thing done should be bottomed upon the ultimate reality. Every ethik should have its metaphysik. Not so the English mind. The average Englishman rather prides himself upon his thoughts having many loose ends. This shows his eminently practical common sense nature. The latter end of his philosophy may forget the beginning. If the defect is shown up, he does not mind it. He thanks the stars he is not an arid German pedant. There may be an exception here and there like T.H. Green who strove most conscientiously to live in the spirit of his creed. Locke and Mill and Spencer are very English and show how recalcitrant their metaphysics can be to their politics. It was an English historian that explained that the Empire was won in a fit of absence of mind. It was an English poet of the Empire that said the type was the absent-minded beggar.

The German is not absent-minded. He has been and is wide awake. He has a new Gospel, a new Ethik, a perfectly reasoned out system to explain the why and the wherefore of this present war. When certain ideas are in the air, these are expressed by different men in different ways. Philosophers trick out these ideas in all the panoply of logic and system. Historians show the march of events gradually making explicit to human consciousness the immanent purpose of God or civilisation. Poets sing of the golden age of man's brotherhood and solidarity, or of the heroic past of their ancestors, or of their being a chosen nation or of the ineluctable destiny of their racial supremacy to which they have to submit with becoming modesty. The thing has been done before. They do it now in Germany.

It will serve the purpose of the paper to indicate how the main ideas at the basis of the war have obsessed the thoughts of some leading minds in Germany.

The historian that familiarised the Germans with the idea of their glorious future was Treitschke. Mr. G. P. Gooch thus refers to his historic work "Germany in the Nineteenth Century." "It is written throughout from a Prussian standpoint, with a pronounced antipathy to the smaller states, and without comprehension for the men and movements that opposed the military and bureaucratic *regime* of the Hohenzollern."* There is throughout a perfervid patriotism as of a German Macaulay. He breaks out into such a prophetic vision as the following: "To whom will belong the sceptre of the Universe? What nation will

* Cambridge M. H. vol. xii.

* Cambridge M.H. Vol. XII. Last Chapter.

impose its wishes on the other decadent and enfeebled people? Will it be not Germany that will have the mission to ensure the peace of the world? .... The future belongs to Germany." Evidently the German has no need to imitate the Scotsman and pray to the Lord as he was supposed to do: "O Lord! Gie us a guid conceit of oursel."

The philosopher of the German *Machtpolitik* is Nietzsche. There is no originality worth mentioning about the Nietzschean doctrines. Manu and Plato were quite convinced of the indefeasible superiority of certain races and of their right to lord it over other races for all time to come. The French savant, Comte de Gobineau, has elaborately gone into the question and with an array of learned argument has tried to establish the inequality of different races of humanity. There is the resort even to the polygenist theory made acceptable to the slave-owning Americans by Morton and Nott and Glidden.*

The merit about Nietzsche is that he has the literary talent and there is an engaging frankness about his statements. There is none of the decorous veiling of the rights, no insistence on the *Dharmas* of the different castes which Manu makes so much about; the side of his exposition so acceptable to some minds even now.

Schopenhauer had got dissatisfied with a purely intellectual envisaging of the world. The prime reality according to him was will. It is the will to live that is the *vis motor* of life phenomena. Into this idea and fact of volition Schopenhauer melts everything. Whether the world process can be thus satisfactorily accounted for is not our present purpose to investigate. We may well hesitate to accept the suggested solution as final. All attempts to bring within man's intellectual schemata the streaming-in fulness of the many-sided cosmos raise such doubts in us and it is the privilege of each man to think such thoughts afresh and feel that there is some hidden want therein, or find that the intellectual frame work is able to carry the whole of reality.

We are not concerned however with Schopenhauer or with the soundness of his system. He comes in only as the nearest ancestor of Nietzsche as a thinker. If the 'will to live' is the potent word to conjure with for Schopenhauer, 'the will to power' is equally powerful in Nietzsche's hands.

Each age has to rethink for itself, make clear to itself ultimately desirable ends and set up its own ideals. It has to form its own table of values, to marshal its own hierarchy of ends. The earlier ages had sought to pursue such ends as truth, virtue: truth was regarded as superior to error, virtue as superior to vice. Nietzsche was not satisfied with the hitherto accepted table of values. He wanted to have a transvaluation of all values. The morality of the world, the code of Christian virtues that ostensibly guided his contemporaries he stigmatises as the morality of the slave. The table of Christian virtues was drawn up by Judaism. It was the Jews who were the worst enemies of the aristocratic values. The ascetic ideal, of dying to live, was a thing to repudiate most vigorously.

As M. Lichtenberger puts it 'those mysterious and superhuman metaphysical entities which man has always believed to be without himself, and which he has reverenced under different names—God, the world, the thing in itself, Truth, the 'Categorical Imperative' are merely phantoms of our imagination. The most immediate reality, the only reality which it is permitted us to know, is the world of our desires, of our passions. All our deeds, wishes, and thoughts are, in the end, governed by our instincts, and these instincts all spring from one primordial instinct, the 'will to power,' which suffices to explain by itself alone all the manifestations of life of which we are witnesses."* All life activities are governed by instincts. "If a man aspires to virtue, truth or art, he is urged to do so by his instincts." Morality is a human institution. Different ranks of men have different systems of morality. There is a morality of masters, a morality of slaves. The man of prey, the aristocrat, can determine for himself the value of men and things. The useful is *good*, the harmful *bad*. Nietzsche sets small store by disinterestedness, pity—as these are out of place in a master. He admires strength, audacity, deceit and even cruelty, as they help him in war. Man has obligations only to his peers, he may act towards the slave as he thinks fit, treating them delicately or harshly as he pleases. Against the slave everything done is lawful—outrages, murder, pillage, torture, etc.

The slave is interested in making out that such unrestricted, natural following out of human impulses is wrong. Ethical narcotics are administered, religious bogeys are invented. There have been Nietzscheans before Nietzsche. Richard III was evidently one when he said:

Conscience is but a word that cowards use,
Devised at first to keep the strong in awe.

Here is the Gospel of the Aristocrat, of the superman: the Message of the Hammer:

* Art Anthropology Ency. Brit. IX Ed.

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"Why so hard!" said the charcoal unto the diamond, "are we not near relations?"

"Why so soft? O my brethren, this I ask you. Are ye not brethren?

Why so soft, so unresisting, and yielding? Why is there so much disavowal and abnegation in your hearts?

Why is there so little fate in your looks?

And if you are unwilling to be fates, and inexorable, how could you—conquer with me some day?

And if your hardness would not glance, and cut, and chip to pieces, how could you—create with me some day?

For all creators are hard. And it must seem blessedness unto you to press your hand upon milleniums as upon wax,—

Blessed to write upon the will of milleniums as upon brass,—harder than brass, nobler than brass. The noblest only is perfectly hard.

This new table, O my brethern, I put over you

Become hard!"

"The state is *unmorality* organised, is from within—the police, the penal code, status, commerce, the family; and from without the will to war, to power, to conquest and revenge." This is something quite different from what represents the collective will of the community, from what makes it possible for each to realise his best self. This Leviathan—the objectification of the will of the autocrat or of the wills of a favoured minority—has not improved by the land change.

How counter Nietzcheism runs to the movements that the humanitarians have been promoting is obvious. If the gospel of the superman should be accepted there would be an end of all the cherished heritage of civilisation.

Critics have pointed out that we must not seek anything like a complete system of philosophy in Nietzsche. He was one like Emerson, an aphoristic writer; giving in unsystematic fashion penetrative intuitions of many things. Nor is it the case that politicians seek to have a thoroughgoing logical justification of their measures. What is suggested here is that those who follow the relentless policy of militarism have in Nietzsche's works a convenient philosophy made ready to hand. Each man, each nation, each epoch gets the kind of philosophy it deserves.

Let us compare the principles referred to with the authoritative expounders of German policy:—

Compared with private morality, international morality is in a less advanced condition. If after so many years of civilisation there be the recrudescence in Nietzscheism of what looks like a reversion to earlier savagery in the department of private morality, that in international morality we should be still nearer the state of nature red in tooth and claw is no matter for surprise. Germany grown a nation, Germany with its weapons of attack perfected, Germany flesh with victories at Sadowa and Sedan, was naturally eager to be recognised as one of the great powers. Carefully guided by Bismarck, its position as a factor to be reckoned with in European politics was acknowledged. Germany's ambition was not satisfied with mere being. There must be well-being and the well-being assured for all time to come. Participating in the full in the life of Europe, there was for Germany the world-oyster to open. Was she to wait indefinitely and be content only with the shell?

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"It is a danger to the country and the monarchy. This danger must be faced and met with a great and comprehensive national policy."*

There must be complete Teutonization of all peoples in the Empire and they must be imbued with German culture. In Adolph Wilbrandt's play** an official belonging to the north German nobility makes love to the daughter of a savant. They quarrel. "I represent the Germany of Schiller, Gothe, Lessing," says the lady. "And I represent the Germany of Bismarck and Blucher and Moltke." They marry. In their marriage we see symbolised the combination of militarism and intellect.

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"All who love the German people and wish to accelerate the advent of a crisis will long for the

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outbreak of a war which will wake all the wholesome and strong forces of the nation."

"If Germany should be victorious there will occur a great moral revival similar to that resulting from the Franco-German War, and it will have similar political results. A Reichstag with a large patriotic majority will be elected. As that sentiment may be only transient it should immediately be utilised. Immediately the constitution should be altered by the alteration of the present franchise.

"If we should be defeated—that, after all, is possible—the present internal disunion would cease. It would become a curse. It could be converted into order only by the absolute will of a Dictator. A Dictatorship, supported by the Army and all the patriots, could then effect the necessary revision of the constitution."*

Here we have clearly the true inwardness of such a drastic remedy as war.

Be it thy course [O Kaiser] to busy giddy minds,
With foreign quarrels, says 'Frymann.'

General Von Bernhardi has no doubt or misgiving about Germany's duty. For Germany to be a world power and to procure for German spirit and German ideas the recognition hitherto denied to them there must be war. And the war will pay Germany. There are British possessions to occupy if Britain has not the good sense to stand Germany's friend. Von Bernhardi gives the following justification for the faith that is in him:

Might is at once the supreme right, and the dispute as to what is right is decided by the arbitrament of war. War gives a biologically just decision, since its decisions rest upon the very nature of things. The end-all and be-all of a State is power. This justifies the big nations in blotting out the little ones and seizing their territories. Strong, healthy and flourishing nations increase in numbers. From a given moment they require a continual expansion of their frontiers, they require new territory for the accommodation of their surplus population. Since almost every part of the globe is inhabited, new territory must, as a rule, be obtained at the cost of its possessors—that is to say, by conquest, which thus becomes a law of necessity. Thus the only course left is to acquire the necessary territory by war. Thus the instinct of self-preservation leads inevitably to war and the conquest of foreign soil. It is not the possessor, but the victor, who then has the right.

The Emperor said to the Germans who went to put down the Boxer rising in China:—

"When you come in contact with the enemy strike him down. Quarter is not to be given. Prisoners are not to be made. Whoever falls into your hands is into your hands delivered. Just as a thousand years ago the Huns under King Attila made for themselves a name which still appears imposing in tradition, so may the name of Germany become known in China in such a way that never again a Chinaman dare to look askance at a German.

While repudiating socialism so far as it presses inconveniently on the privileged castes in Germany, there is an openmindedness to appreciate it with regard to financial obligations. Professor Usher says that according to Germany,

"The moral code of the financial world, like the moral code of the political world, is based upon the notions of England and France, upon ideas obviously themselves the result of a peculiar situation, on whose continuance the welfare of England and France depends. Their moral code is based on their ownership of the world and their desire to continue it in perpetuity, and their moral code, therefore, condemns Germany to insignificance. The Germans refuse to recognise as moral anything which jeopardises their national existence. They claim the right to protect themselves by any weapons which will secure the desired result, and they have no intention of foregoing the use of these terrible economic weapons, simply from a supine acceptance of so-called ethical notions, whose very presumptions militate against them."

If debts are repudiated, the German but beggars his neighbour. It is but a fair spoiling of the Egyptains. Are not the German people the elect of God, the enemies of the Germans the enemies of the Lord, according to a reverend German pastor? The Germans have a civilising mission. All ye meaner peoples of the earth, abase yourself before them. They are "the granite block on which the good God may complete his work of civilising the world." The Kaiser has said it. And he holds his Empire by right divine and is not accountable to man. His military bureaucracy and his scientific savants are there to serve his will. And the ordinary people, that the Socialistic canaille prate of the rights of, are they not to serve the hierarchy of the privileged? They have to pay the taxes, to serve as soldiers and not to jaw. These form the whole duty of the people according to the authoritative exposition of a German professor of Christian Theology.

This is the philosophy of politics according to Nietzsche's own heart. It is the political philosophy of the Superman. Only there is no novelty about it. Such ideas of Government we have had only too long. Autocracy and Bureaucracy are not German inventions. The brutal frankness of the exposition of such political philosophy may be the mark of the 'blond beast,' the German Superman.

The present war is but the re-enacting of the old world drama of the conflict between the privileged and the great un-privileged, the conflict that began at Thermopylae and has since been going on with varying fortunes throughout the world all these centuries and has perhaps come to a head in this world conflagration. There can be but one end to this war. Any other is unthinkable. If any other,

The pillared firmament is rottenness,
And earth's base built on stubble.

* The *Nineteenth Century and After*, Feb. 1914 Art Zabern.

"THE TRIUMPH OF CULTURE."

"When the German armies penetrated the moral barrier of neutrality built by treaties round about Belgium and Luxemburg," says the *New York Sun*, "the Imperial Chancellor told the German people that this was a wrong justifiable only because German culture was in peril.

"Now, when Zeppelins are carrying midnight murder into Antwerp, slaying the women and children of an unhappy race whose only offence lay in the fact that fate had placed it in the pathway of the German General Staff operations, what warrant will the Kaiser's Minister find to satisfy the German people?

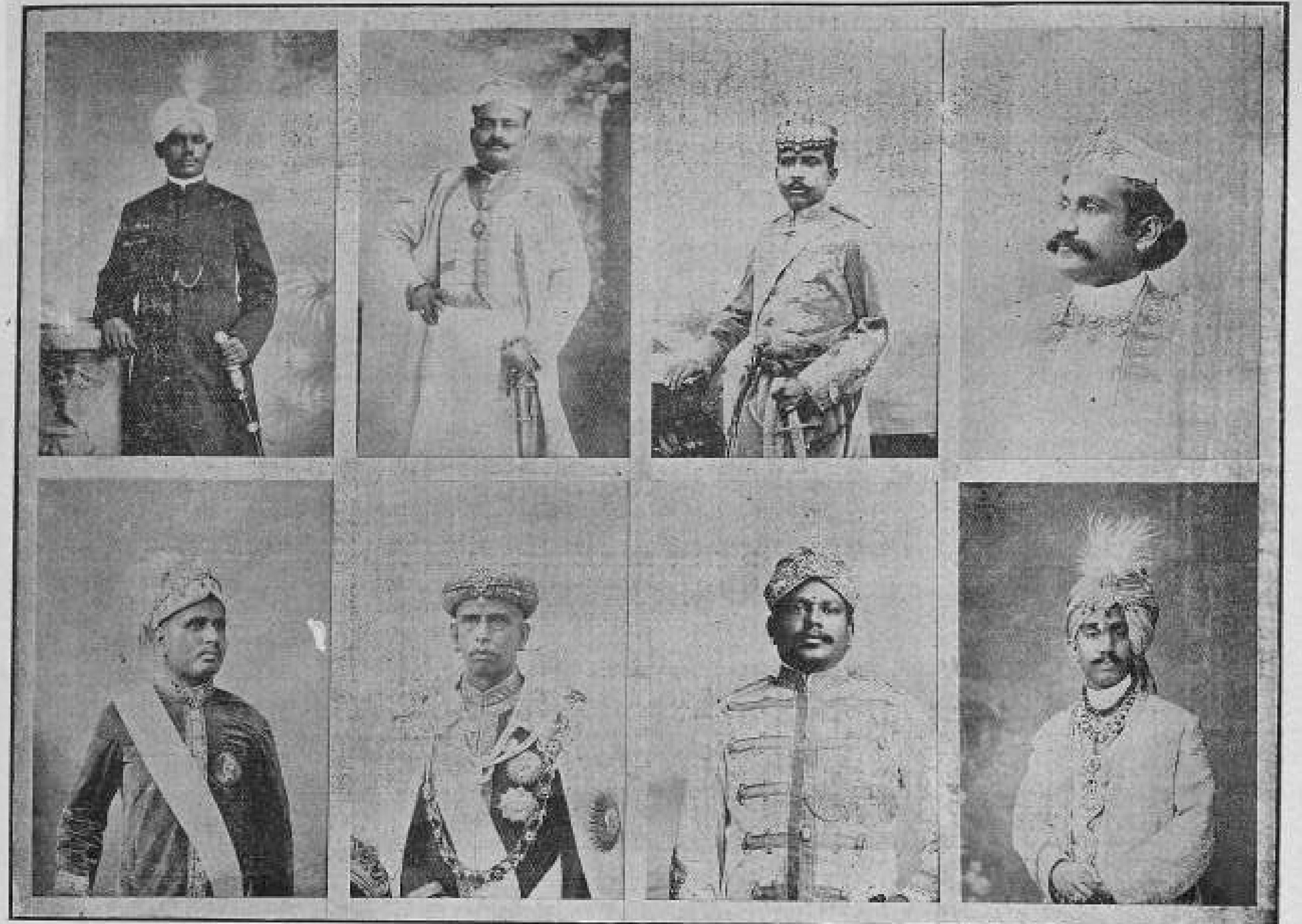
"Germany, too, the world over, has appealed to the neutral nations for sympathy and moral support in her noble defence of her endangered culture.

"Cannot the Germans perceive that a few more Zeppelin raids, a few more slaughterings of women and children and of the helpless and hapless, and the world, no longer neutral, will look eastward over the troubled Vistula toward the Russian millions flowing resistlessly onward, and will welcome them as the soldiers of civilisation and as the saviours of all that the word and thought of culture means to it?"—*From the Punch.*

A TITANIC STRUGGLE.

The titanic struggle into which the German Kaiser has plunged himself has gathered against him another foe in Japan. He now fights five enemies—France, Belgium and England in the West, and Russia in the East of Europe, and Japan in Asia.—*From the Punch,*

THE RULING CHIEFS OF INDIA.



THE RULING PRINCES AND CHIEFS OF SOUTHERN INDIA WHO HAVE LIBERALLY CONTRIBUTED TO THE HOSPITAL SHIP, *MADRAS*.

INDIA AND THE WAR

The King and the Minister's appreciation.

His Majesty's Message to India.*

DURING the past few weeks, the peoples of my whole Empire at Home and Overseas have moved with one mind and purpose to confront and overthrow an unparalleled assault upon the continuity of civilisation and peace-making. The calamitous conflict is not of my seeking. My voice has been cast throughout on the side of peace. My Ministers earnestly strove to allay the causes of strife and to appease differences with which my Empire was not concerned. Had I stood aside when, in defiance of the pledges to which my Kingdom was a party, the soil of Belgium was violated and her cities laid desolate, when the very life of the French nation was threatened with extinction, I should have sacrificed my honour and given to destruction the liberties of my Empire and of mankind.

I rejoice that every part of the Empire is with me in this decision.

Paramount regard for treaty, faith and pledged word of rulers and peoples is the common heritage of England and India. Amongst the many incidents that have marked the unanimous up-rising of the populations of my Empire in defence of its unity and integrity, nothing has moved me more than the passionate devotion to my Throne expressed both by my Indian and English subjects and by the Feudatory Princes and Ruling Chiefs of India and their prodigious offers of their lives and their resources in the cause of the realm. Their one-voiced demand to be foremost in conflict has touched my heart and has inspired to the highest issues the love and devotion which as I well know, have ever linked my Indian subjects and myself. I recall to mind India's gracious message to the British nation of good-will and fellowship which greeted my return in February 1912, after the solemn ceremony of my Coronation Durbar at Delhi, and I find in this hour of trial a full harvest and a noble fulfilment of the assurance given by you that the destinies of Great Britain and India are indissolubly linked.

* H. E. the Viceroy read the King's Message at the Imperial Legislative Council at Simla on September 8.

The Rt. Hon. Mr. Asquith.

The following is an extract from a speech delivered by the Rt. Hon. Mr. H. H. Asquith, the Prime Minister at a great meeting at the Guild Hall held on the 4th September 1914:—

India too with not less alacrity has claimed her share in the common task (cheers). Every class and creed, British and Native, Princes and people, Hindus and Mahomedans vie with one another in the noble and emulous rivalry (cheers).

Two divisions of their magnificent army are already on the way. (Cheers.)

We welcome with appreciation and affection their proferred aid and, in the Empire which knows no distinction of race or class, where all alike are subjects of the King-Emperor and are joint and equal custodians of our common interest and fortunes, we here hail with profound and heart-felt gratitude their association side by side and shoulder to shoulder with the Home and Dominion troops, under a flag which is the symbol to all of the Unity that the world in arms cannot dissever or dissolve. (Loud Cheers.)

Lord Crewe.

The following is an extract from a speech made by the Most Hon. The Marquess of Crewe, Secretary of State for India, in the House of Lords:—

" This demonstration of loyalty true and heart-felt, to the King-Emperor and the Government is one of the most gratifying facts that have been the outcome of the present war. (Cheers.) Support from the self-governing Dominions has been most striking. They are people of our own blood with countless memories and traditions centering round this island. It is perhaps even more striking, certainly no less gratifying, that those representing the various races in India, races representing a civilisation of almost untold antiquity, races which have been remarkable in arms, and the science of government, that they should, in so whole hearted a manner rally round the British Government, most of all round the King-Emperor at such a moment as this, and I am certain that this House will desire to express through those who are entitled to speak for it, its appreciation of their attitude and its recognition of the part they have played." (Loud Cheers.)

H. E. Lord Hardinge.*

It has been a source of profound satisfaction to me that the attitude of the British Government has been so thoroughly appreciated in India and has met with such warm support. I have no hesitation in saying that the valuable offers of military assistance that I have received from the Ruling Chiefs of India and the countless offers of personal service and of material help made to me by both rich and poor in the provinces of British India have touched me deeply and have given me one more proof, which I never needed, of what I have long known and never for an instant doubted *viz*, the deep loyalty and attachment of the Indian people to the King-Emperor and the Throne and their readiness to make any sacrifice on their part to further and strengthen the interests of the Empire.

The fact that the Government of India are in a position to help the mothercountry by the despatch of such a large proportion of our armed forces is a supreme mark of my absolute confidence in the fidelity of our troops and in the loyalty of the Indian people. I trust that this may be fully recognised in England and abroad. That, owing to the war, sacrifices will have to be made is inevitable, and that suffering will be entailed is unhappily certain, but I am confident that the people of India, standing shoulder to shoulder, will shrink from no sacrifice and will loyally co-operate with the Government in maintaining internal order and in doing all in their power to secure the triumph of the arms of our King-Emperor. The countless meetings to express loyalty held throughout India and the warm response of the people to my appeal for funds for the relief of distress in India during the war, have filled me with satisfaction and have confirmed my first impression that, in this war, the Government would be supported by the determination, courage and endurance of the whole country. If it was, moreover, with confidence and pride that I was able to offer to His Majesty the finest and largest military force of British and Indian troops for service in Europe that has ever left the shores of India, I am confident that the honour of this land and of the British Empire may be safely entrusted to our brave soldiers and that they will acquit themselves nobly and ever maintain their high traditions of military chivalry and courage.

* Speech at the meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council held at Simla on September 8.

The Indian Expeditionary Force.

The Cost of the Expedition.

DEBATE IN THE VICEROY'S COUNCIL.

All India was delighted to learn that the Indian Expeditionary Force would be used in the Great European War. At the instance of the Hon. Sir G. M. Chitnavis a resolution was passed in the Imperial Legislative Council offering financial support for the maintenance of this force from the resources of the Government of India.

SIR CHITNAVIS.

Sir G. M. Chitnavis in moving his Resolution which was unanimously passed made an excellent speech in the course of which he said:—

Should any outside danger threaten us, we stand shoulder to shoulder round our mighty mother England, and her enemies will find us arrayed in solid phalanx by her side ready to meet any danger and render any sacrifices for the sake of the great and glorious Empire of which we are proud to call ourselves citizens. Indians of all ranks, religions, and shade of political opinion scorn and repel the suggestion that there exists any party or body or individual in this country that hopes for aught but victory for England.

* * *

We rejoice in the thought that our warrior forces will take the field beside the steadfast soldiery of England, that the fighting races—the Sikhs, Pathans, Rajputs and Gurkhas—of whom we are so justly proud, will charge shoulder to shoulder with the famous British Regiment, whose banners, have the record of many a fight fought boldly, in the scene of to-day's tremendous struggle.

* * *

It is India's deep desire to prove her title to the esteem and confidence of England and the British Empire in this hour of trial. It is not by words only but by action that we must prove it; if I may say so, "not only with our lips but in our lives." It is our firm intention to loyally help our Government and to make any sacrifices that may be needed of us. There is a general and growing desire that we should offer on this occasion all our resources in the service of our King and Emperor. That has been the prevailing sentiment in the crowded meetings convened through-

out the country. We shall be untrue to ourselves and to the people we represent if here in Council we do not reiterate the sentiments that prevail outside, and make it clear to Your Excellency that we are and shall be ready to bear our share in the financial burden that will be imposed by this war. We know that our present condition is due to the peace we have enjoyed under the British rule, that our very existence depends upon the continuance of that rule. We cannot, on this occasion, stand aloof. Along with our devotion and sympathy, the general desire is to make any contribution that may be required of us. I move this resolution convinced as I am that I shall have the full support of the Council; and that no one of us will grudge to bear his share of the burden on this occasion, and thus to do all that lies in his power to ensure that the future history of this great Empire shall be no less glorious than its past, and that its mission of peace, of progress and of liberty shall be continued and completed.

Sir Chitnavis's resolution was seconded by the Hon. The Raja of Mahummadabad and supported by all his colleagues. With reference to the cost of the Expedition the Hon. Mr. Surendranath Bannerjee drew attention to the Government of India Act of 1858, which refers to the cost of Punitive Expeditions outside the limits of India. He also referred to the various Expeditions in which the Indian troops had taken part. He felt the furthest limit of taxation had been reached, and their wants were numerous, but looking on the other side of the shield, the Empire was confronted with a crisis of the greatest magnitude. It was their very existence which was at stake. Its honour, its credit, its heritage were jeopardised in a crisis of supreme magnitude. All constitutional considerations must be held in partial abeyance. They must bear their share of the burden, India aspired to Colonial self-government, and should do what the Colonials were doing.

H. E. LORD HARDINGE

made the following speech on the occasion:—

It has been a source of profound pleasure to me to listen to-day to the loyal and patriotic speeches made by Hon'ble Members of my Council, and it has struck me during the course of to-day's discussion in Council that this remarkable demonstration of loyalty and of unity with the Empire has been a fitting baptism of this new Chamber. I fully recognise that the views expressed by Hon'ble Members represent not merely their own personal views but those of the whole country which has been deeply moved by the fact that the Empire has through no fault on the part of its statesmen been placed in a position of grave external danger. The hearty desire displayed on every side to make material sacrifices and to offer personal service has been a striking demonstration of the enthusiasm of all classes and creeds to unite with the Government in resisting the aggressive action of a Power which can be regarded as a menace to civilisation in its savage efforts to dominate Europe and indirectly the world.

India has gladly given her sons to fight the common foe side by side with sons of Great Britain, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, and we may with confidence and with pride look forward to their achievements on the battlefield being worthy of the best and highest military traditions of this country. It is no longer a secret that we have already despatched two divisions of Infantry to Europe and one Cavalry Brigade while three more Cavalry Brigades will follow immediately. That we have been in a position to send a military force of over 70,000 combatants to fight for the empire across the seas is a legitimate source of pride and satisfaction to India as a whole and with the knowledge that practically all the Ruling Chiefs placed their Military forces and the resources of their States at the disposal of the Government it is clear that we are not at the end of our military resources.

Several of the Ruling Chiefs have, in accordance with their desire, been selected to accompany the Expeditionary Force, whilst all who have had any military training have expressed a desire to serve. Amongst these selected are Maharaja Sir Pratab Singh, Regent of Jodhpur, and the Maharajas of Bikanir, Patiala, Rutlam, Kishengarh, Jodhpur, the Nawabs of Joara, Sachin, Bhopal and several other leading Indians of rank and distinction, amongst those being our friend Malik Umar Hyat who never misses an occasion to go to the front and whose cheery presence in this Council we shall all miss.

I should like to add at the same time that our ally the Maharaja of Nepal has also very generously placed his forces at the disposal of Government, while I have received from His Majesty the Amir the most friendly assurances.

That Hon'ble Members should desire at the same time to share the financial burden cast upon the United Kingdom by the war, is a very natural and legitimate aspiration and one that I cannot commend too highly. I speak for the Government of India when I say that we are in full accord and complete sympathy with the wish

expressed and will be very pleased to gratify it as far as we legitimately can having due regard to the interests of the taxpayers. You are no doubt aware that we are bound to suffer financially from the war and the consequent dislocation of the trade entailing as it will a falling off in our Customs returns and Railway receipts. We could, however, under ordinary circumstances have asked the Home Government to bear the whole cost of the expeditionary force as in the cases of the forces sent to China and South Africa, and in this way we could have effected very considerable counter-savings. But I must tell you that we actually had this matter under our consideration and we felt that it would not be in accordance with the wishes of the people of India that in a crisis like the present, India should gain a material advantage at the expense of the Home Government in the saving effected on the despatch of a large expeditionary force to Europe, a feeling which has received full confirmation in the Resolution which has been moved and in the speeches which have been made.

On behalf of the Government I accept the Resolution and it will strengthen our hands in the recommendation we felt disposed to make and shall now proceed to make, that under present circumstances we should accept such portion of the cost of the expeditionary force as would have fallen upon India had our troops continued to be employed in this country under normal circumstances. So far as a rough estimate can be framed, at present it must necessarily be a very rough one, and the net amount which the Government of India would in this way contribute to His Majesty's Government assuming that the war lasted till towards the end of the current financial year would be about one million sterling.

The Hon'ble Members would have seen the announcement in the Press of the splendid offer of 50 lakhs as a contribution to the cost of expeditionary force made by His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore. I cannot sufficiently commend this striking and partiotic action on the part of His Highness whose loyalty, generosity and liberal views are so well known. The money so offered will be placed at the disposal of His Majesty's Government as an additional contribution, and has been earmarked for meeting the cost of transport for taking our troops overseas. Any other similar offers that may be made will be treated in like way.

I trust that this solution of this somewhat difficult question will prove satisfactory to the Hon'ble Members and to the country at large. We shall thus besides placing at the disposal of His Majesty's Government a large portion of our army primarily maintained for the defence of India, also present them, and that at a time when as I have said the war is likely materially to affect our Budget arrangements, with a sum which may run to about a million sterling. A contribution on more liberal lines than this would not, we think, be fair to the Indian taxpayer, but that we should go to this extent in helping the mother country is, I believe, a measure which will be in unison with your wishes and with Indian sentiment generally. There is, I believe, nothing like comradeship in arms before the enemy and joint participation in the dangers and hardships of war to level all distinctions to inspire mutual respect and to foster friendships. This I regard as the bright side of the despatch of our troops to Europe and of the heavy material sacrifices that are being made by India for the sake of the Empire.

I cannot help feeling that as a consequence better relations will be promoted amongst the component parts of the British Empire, many misunderstandings will be removed and outstanding grievances will be settled in an amicable and generous manner. In this sense out of evil good may come to India, and this is the desire of all.

MR. ASQUITH IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

On the 16th September, the Right Hon. Mr. Asquith moved the following resolution in the House of Commons :—

That, His Majesty having directed a Military Force, consisting of British and Indian troops, charged upon the revenues of India, to be despatched to Europe for service in the war in which this country is engaged, this House consents that the ordinary pay and other ordinary charges of any troops so despatched, as well as the ordinary charges of any vessels belonging to the Government that may be employed in this expedition, which would have been charged upon the resources of India had such troops or vessels remained in that country or seas adjacent, shall continue to be so chargeable, provided that, if it shall be necessary to replace the troops or vessels so withdrawn by other vessels or forces, then the expense of raising, maintaining and providing such vessels and forces shall be repaid out of any moneys which may be provided by Parliament for the purposes of the said expedition.

In moving the Resolution the Premier paid an eloquent tribute to India's magnificent response. Mr. Asquith said :—

The motion is one which will, I am certain, be received with complete assent and gratitude in every quarter of the House. I do not think that in all the moving exhibitions of national and Imperial patriotism which the war has evoked there is any which has more touched, and rightly touched, the feelings of this House and

H. E. LORD HARDINGE,
Viceroy of India.

RT. HON. MARQUESS OF CREWE,
Secretary of State for India.

H. E. SIR BEAUCHAMP DUFF,
Commander-in-Chief in India.

LIEUT. GEN. SIR JAMES WILLCOCKS,
Commanding Indian Army Corps.

The Lieutenant-Governors.

SIR JAMES MESTON,
The United Provinces.

SIR M. F. O'DWYER,
The Punjab.

SIR HARVEY ADAMSON,
Late of Burma.

SIR HARCOURT BUTLER,
Burma.

The Chief Commissioners.

SIR BENJAMIN ROBERTSON,
The Central Provinces & Berar.

SIR CHARLES STUART BAYLEY,
Bihar and Orissa,

SIR G. O. ROOS-KEPPEL,
N. W, Frontier Province.

SIR ARCHDALE EARLE,
Assam.

H. E. LORD PENTLAND,
Governor of Madras.

H. E. LORD CARMICHAEL,
Governor of Bengal.

H. E. LORD WELLINGDON,
Governor of Bombay.

SIR ROBERT CHALMERS,
Governor of Ceylon.

country than the message from H. E. the Viceroy of India announcing the magnificent response which the Princes and peoples of that country have made to our appeal. (Cheers.)

In consequence of Section 55 of the Government of India Act of 1858, it is not constitutionally right or proper to charge upon the revenues of India, except in the case of actual invasion or some unforeseen emergency, the cost of troops which may be sent outside that country, and the assent of both Houses of Parliament is needed before any such charge can be imposed upon the revenues of India.

The assistance of the Indian Army in Imperial exigencies has been more than once, indeed several times, offered by India and accepted by ourselves, and I do not go into precedents because it is not necessary to do so, but in most of these cases the whole cost of the charge has been met, as I am sure we should willingly meet it in this case, out of the revenues of the United Kingdom. (Cheers.) But when this matter came up two or three days ago before the Legislative Council of H. E. the Viceroy, one of the Non-Official Members moved a Resolution to the effect that India would desire in the present emergency that she be allowed, not only to send her troops, but to contribute to the cost of their maintenance—(cheers)—and H. E. the Viceroy, on behalf of the Government of India, and, I am sure, with the assent and sympathy, not only of this House and of the people of this country, but of the whole people of the British Empire, accepted that offer.

The result is that, though the patriotic initiative was not in any sense taken or inspired by the Government, but proceeded from a Non-official Member of the Government of India, these splenpid British and Indian troops are now already upon their way, and will, we believe, afford to us and to the Empire at large the most effective assistance in the righteous struggle in which we are engaged. (Cheers.)

MR. BONAR LAW.

Mr. Bonar Law following Mr. Asquith said :—

Nothing has moved the people of this country more deeply since the outbreak of the war than the spontaneous outburst in India of loyalty to the Emperor and patriotism to the Empire. The British troops will be proud to welcome the Indian troops by their side. Generous assistance could not be demanded and could not be enforced by us. It was coming, not from force, but from good will.

The Resolution was passed unanimously.

LORD CREWE.

In the House of Lords the Marquis of Crewe moved the same Resolution. He referred to the pride which we all felt at the despatch of the Indian Forces. It was a magnificent tribute to our rule in India, and also evidence of how the heart of India beat in sympathy with us in this great struggle. She desired to play her part not only in sending troops, but also in not making any saving because of the absence of troops from India.

The motion was carried amid cheers.

The Ruling Princes' Munificent Help

MAHARAJAH SCINDIA AND THE VICEROY.

The following telegrams which have passed between H. E. the Viceroy and H. H. the Maharajah Scindia of Gwalior regarding the offer of a hospital ship by certain ruling Chiefs are published for information.

From H. H. the Maharajah Scindia of Gwalior to H. E. the Viceroy, dated 12th August, 1914:—

"The following Chiefs joined me in ordering for the use of the Imperial Government wherever required a hospital ship of 300 beds to be named *The Loyalty* ;—The Nizam of Hyderabad; the Begum of Bhopal, the Maharajahs of Jodhpur, Rewah and Datia; the Rajahs of Dhar, Sitaman, Jhabua and Sailana. Some of the other Ruling Chiefs are expected to join whose names will be communicated hereafter. We request that the Government will undertake to hire a suitable ship in England, and that Surgeon General Crofts, if available, with an Advisory Committee, selected by himself, may supervise the fitting of the ship and the engagement of a staff. In the event of the Government considering that a hospital ship would be more useful if fitted out in India, we trust that the Indian Marine and Medical Departments will be permitted to assist, and that the latter will provide a Medical Officer to command and a full Staff as was done in the case of the hospital ship *Gwalior*."

From H. E. the Viceroy to H. H. the Maharajah Scindia of Gwalior, dated the 13th August.

"I have received Your Highness's telegram informing me that Your Highness and several other Ruling Chiefs, including the Nizam of Hyderabad, the Begum of Bhopal, the Maharajahs of Jodhpur, Rewah and Datia and the Rajahs of Dhar, Sitaman, Jhabua and Sailana, have very generously offered for the use of the Imperial Government, wherever required, a hospital ship of 300 beds to be named *The Loyalty*. I accept with warm gratitude, on behalf of the Imperial Government, this generous and patriotic offer on the part of Your Highness and the Ruling Chiefs, and I shall be much obliged if you will kindly convey to them my very cordial thanks. I will inform you later on the arrangements proposed for hiring and fitting of a ship and the engagement of Surgeon-General Croft, if available, with a suitable staff."

In addition to the Ruling Chiefs who have already offered assistance, similar loyal offers have been received from the following :—The Maharajah of Udaipur, the Maharajahs of Cooch Behar, Kashmir, Jodhpur, Nabha, Jaipur, Kishengarh, Benares, Bijwar, Chattarpur, the Thakur Sahib of Gondal and the Durbars of Bahwalpur, Faridkote and Jhalwar and several others. Many of these messages include offers of troops and personal service.

Mysore's Magnificent Offer.

H. E. the Viceroy received the following letter from H. H. the Maharajah of Mysore on the 28th August:—

"My esteemed friend,—I have already telegraphed my warm sympathy with the objects of the Imperial Indian Relief Fund, on behalf of which Your Excellency made such a stirring appeal the other day, and I am in communication with Sir Hugh Daly regarding my contribution to that Fund. This is a time, I feel, at which the Feudatory States and all subjects of the British Empire should stand shoulder to shoulder for her defence, and I desire to assure Your Excellency in all sincerity of the devotion and loyalty of my people and our readiness to make every sacrifice to protect our common interests. We in Mysore have special reason to be grateful for the signal marks of confidence bestowed on me and my people by the Imperial Government in recent years. It will be long before Mysore can forget Your Excellency's memorable visit of last year, and the more than generous sympathy and encouragement accorded on that occasion to measures calculated to improve the lot of my people.

My people and myself will cheerfully respond to any sacrifices demanded of us in such a crisis and are prepared to bear our share in the cost of the war. My troops are ready, and should money be required I hereby place at Your Excellency's disposal a sum of Rs. 50 lakhs as my contribution towards the cost of the Indian War Fund.

With every assurance of my high regard, I remain Your Excellency's sincere friend. (Sd.) Krishnaraja Wadiyar."

His Excellency addressed the following telegram in reply:—

"I have received Your Highness's letter and I thank you most warmly, not only for the loyal sentiments it contains, but also for your most patriotic and generous offer of your troops and of Rs. 50 lakhs as a contribution towards the cost of the Indian Force.

I will not fail to call upon Your Highness for your troops should the occasion arise, and I gratefully accept the generous contribution that you have offered, and propose to inform you later by letter of the special object connected with our Force to which this sum will be chiefly devoted. For the moment, I will only add that the thought that you, my friend, have shown such splendid patriotism at a time like this fills my heart with a warm glow of pleasure."

THE SANJVARTAMAN, BOMBAY.—The "Indian Review" may well be called the Review of Reviews for India. Any one who wishes to be always in touch with the progress of political, social or religious thoughts of New India must have a copy of this excellent *Review* always by himself. It is undoubtedly a gem of its kind and no cultured Indian cares to be without it.

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H. H. the Nizam's Munificent Offer.

H. E. the Viceroy received the following telegram from H. H. the Nizam of Hyderabad:—

* * * * * * Your Excellency is aware that the whole resources of my State are at the disposal of the British Government, and it is a pride to me that one of my Regiments has been accepted and is now under orders for foreign service. But this is not enough. In 1887 my revered father offered to Her Imperial Majesty Queen Victoria the sum of Rs. 60 lakhs when danger merely threatened the borders of the Indian Empire. I should be untrue alike to the promptings of my own heart and to the traditions of my house if I offered less to His Imperial Majesty King George V in this just and momentous war. As Your Excellency is aware, the subject of my contributions on this occasion has been under my consideration for some time past, and I now desire to suggest for Your Excellency's approval that it should take the following shape:—Two regiments will be engaged in the war in which I have a special and personal interest, namely, my own 1st Imperial Service Lancers and the 20th Deccan Horse, of which I have the honour to be Colonel. My wish is to be permitted to defray the entire expenses of these two regiments from the date of their departure from Hyderabad to the day of their return to the cantonments from the campaign. But in no case will my war contribution fall short of Rs. 60 lakhs, and I desire to place this sum at Your Excellency's disposal forthwith. I trust that this proposal will meet with Your Excellency's acceptance."

His Excellency sent the following reply:—"I have to-day received Your Highness' telegram and I hasten to express my very warm appreciation of your most generous offer of Rs. 60 lakhs towards the cost of the present war to be devoted in the first instance to defraying the entire expenses of the two Regiments, in which Your Highness is interested, namely, your own splendid Regiment of 1st Imperial Service Lancers and the 20th Deccan Horse, of which you are the Colonel, during the whole of the period that these Regiments are on foreign service overseas. The traditional loyalty of your house and all its rulers to the British Government has always been meritorious and has been proved on many an occasion of difficulty and danger, and the present demonstration of loyalty to our King-Emperor and of a heart-felt desire to help the Empire is only one more proof, if such were needed, of Your Highness' intense patriotism and devotion.

Maharajah Scindia.

In addition to the offer of seven thousand pounds sterling already accepted from Maharajah Scindia for the purchase of motor cars for the war, His Highness has now made a further offer of fifteen thousand pounds for the purchase of a motor transport in the field and also contributed five thousand pounds to the relief of Belgian sufferers.

H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir.*

Our life, liberty, freedom of conscience and all that we possess is the gift of our benign Government and our destinies are indissolubly bound up with the maintenance of the British rule. We must, therefore, all pray for the victory and glory of the British arms. I call upon every subject of mine, whether Hindu, Mahomedan, Christian, or professing any other religion to offer, according to his own religion, prayers to Almighty that He may, in His inexhaustible goodness and power, grant His blessings upon the British and Indian soldiers, guide them in the war and lead them to speedy victory.

The Maharaja of Burdwan.†

We Indians realise, and realise it most, perhaps at a time like this, how much we owe to England for our peace and prosperity, and how much we are bound up with her for our future progress and happiness. Her interests, her dangers are our own, her glories are our glories.

Dewan V. P. Madhava Rao.‡

I may tell you, although it might sound paradoxical, that India should be more interested than England herself in this war and the success of British arms. For if Britain is beaten in this war it would mean the passing of India into the hands of some other Power and it would mean the utter ruin of all hopes and aspirations of India ever becoming a nation with any degree of self-government. This is now a matter of profound conviction of every Indian who has given any thought to the subject and it behoves every well-wisher of the country, therefore, that we should present a united front to the world and show them that Britain has at her back the support of every one of the various races and creeds and religions that go to form the great Indian nation.

* His Highness' appeal to his officers and subjects to aid the Imperial Indian Relief Fund.

† From his Speech as President of the Calcutta Demonstration.

‡ Speech at the Baroda Demonstration on 27th August.

Indian Princes to the Front.

THE MAHARAJAH OF PATIALA.

The present ruler of Patiala, H.H. Maharajah Bhupendra Singh whose personal service with the flower of his troops has been accepted by the Imperial Government comes of a distinguished line of military commanders. It is a matter of history that the Princes and Princesses of his Household have shown extraordinary military skill. Half a dozen times in British history have the Patiala troops stood by the British arms. H. H. The Maharajah Bhupendra Singh was installed on the Gadi in 1910 by Lord Minto. His Highness has been carefully trained for the requirements of his high position. His prowess in athletic sports led to his being selected as the Captain of the All-India Cricket Team which visited England in 1911, and he possesses the martial spirit for which his forefathers were renowned.

THE MAHARAJAH OF BIKANIR.

The twentyfirst ruler of the Bikanir kingdom, His Highness worthily upholds the traditions of his household for gallantry and loyalty. Educated at the Mayo College, Ajmir, he saw campaigns in China and Somaliland.

In 1909 His Highness was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant Colonel in His Majesty's Army and in 1910 on the accession of King George, he was promoted to the rank of a full colonel on being made an A.-D.-C., to His Majesty.

SIR PRATAP SINGH OF JODHPUR.

Col. Pratap, the maker of modern Jodhpur has added fresh lustre to the annals of Marwar. Always chivalrous, in 1889 he raised the Imperial Service Troops known as the Sardar Risala which consists of 600 Sowars each and at this ripe age of 68 fulfils second time his ambition to lead his own men against the enemies of Great Britain. Sir Pratap was one of the members of the Mission to Kabul in 1878.

He was made a Lieutenant-Colonel in the British Army and an A.-D.-C. to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales in 1887. He served as an extra A.-D.-C. to General Ellis in the Mohmand Expedition and as an A.-D. C. to General Sir William Lockhart in the Tirah campaign in 1889 where he bore a share in the campaign bravely, and was wounded in one of the engagements at Tirah.

He was soon made a Colonel in the British army and in 1900 the Government of India accepted his offer of the services of the Sardar Risala in China.

THE NAWAB OF JAORA.

Nawab Iftikhar Agikhan comes of a warlike stock in Swat and succeeded to the Gadi in his twelfth year.

Under the direction of two distinguished military officers, the young Nawab carried on his studies at the Daly College, Indore, till 1899. He then served in the Imperial Cadet Corps for fifteen months. In 1905 he was given the rank of Captain and subsequently Major in the British Army.

THE RAJAH OF RUTLAM.

His Highness Sir Sajjan Singh traces his descent from the famous house of Jodhpur. Educated at the Daly College, Indore, he joined the Imperial Cadet Corps in 1903. An honorary captain in the British Army he maintains a small but highly trained force of cavalry and infantry.

THE MAHARAJAH OF KISHENGARH.

His Highness Maharajah Madan Singh is married to a daughter of the Maharajah of Udaipur, the acknowledged head of the Rajput Princes. The Maharajah maintains a military force of 220 regulars (84 cavalry and 136 infantry) and 1,739 irregulars (836 cavalry and 903 infantry) 35 artillerymen and 65 guns.

THE NAWAB OF SACHIN.

The Nawab of Sachin was educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and Mayo College, Ajmir, and completed his training with the Imperial Cadet Corps of which he is a Lieutenant. He was granted a commission as honorary captain in the British Army in 1899. He is an honorary A.-D.-C. to H. E. the Governor of Bombay.

THE MAHARAJAH OF JODHPUR.

H. H. the Maharajah accompanies his martial uncle Sir Pratap. A minor himself, His Highness accompanies his Imperial Service Troops which are for the most part Rajputs of the ruling clan. His troops have once seen battle in China in 1900 and bears an honoured record of achievement.

THE MAHARAJA OF IDAR.

The Maharaja of Idar has joined the list of the Indian Chiefs going to the front on active service. He is the son of Major-General Sir Pratap Singh, Regent of Jodhpur. He has twice been to England, namely, for the Coronations of both King Edward and King George. His Highness will be accompanied by nine of his Sirdars who are members of the Idar Sirdar's Corps, a portion of the State's Imperial Service Troops. They have received special training to give them a military knowledge worthy of their ancestors.

Details of the Indian Princes' Help.

MR. ROBERTS' STATEMENT IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

In the House of Commons on the 9th September Mr. Charles Roberts read the following statement from the Viceroy of India giving details of the munificent offers of help by the various ruling Princes and Chiefs of India. This created a tremendous sensation in the House :—

"The following is a summary of the offers of service, money, etc., made in India to the Viceroy. The Rulers of Native States in India, who number nearly seven hundred in all, have with one accord rallied to the defence of the Empire, and offered their personal services and the resources of their States for the war. From among many princes and nobles who have volunteered for active service the Viceroy has selected the Chiefs of Jodhpur, Bikanir, Kishangarh, Rutlam, Sachin, and Patiala, Sir Partab Singh, Regent of Jodhpur, the Heir Apparent of Bhopal, and a brother of the Maharaja of Cooch Behar together with other cadets of noble families. The veteran Sir Pratab would not be denied his rights to serve the King-Emperor, in spite of his seventy years, and nephew, the Maharaja, who is but sixteen years old, with him. (Loud cheers.) The Chief of Gwalior in addition to sharing in the expenses of the hospital ship the idea of which orginated with himself and the Begum of Bhopal, has offered to place large sums of money at the disposal of the Government of India, and to provide thousands of horses as remounts. From Loharu in the Punjab and Las Bela and Kelat in Baluchistan come offers of camels with drivers, to be supplied and maintained by the Chiefs and Sardars. Several Chiefs have offered to raise additional troops, for military service should they be required, and donations to the Indian Relief Fund have poured in from all States. The Maharaja of Rewa has offered his troops, his treasury, and even his private jewellery, for the service of the King-Emperor. (Cheers.)

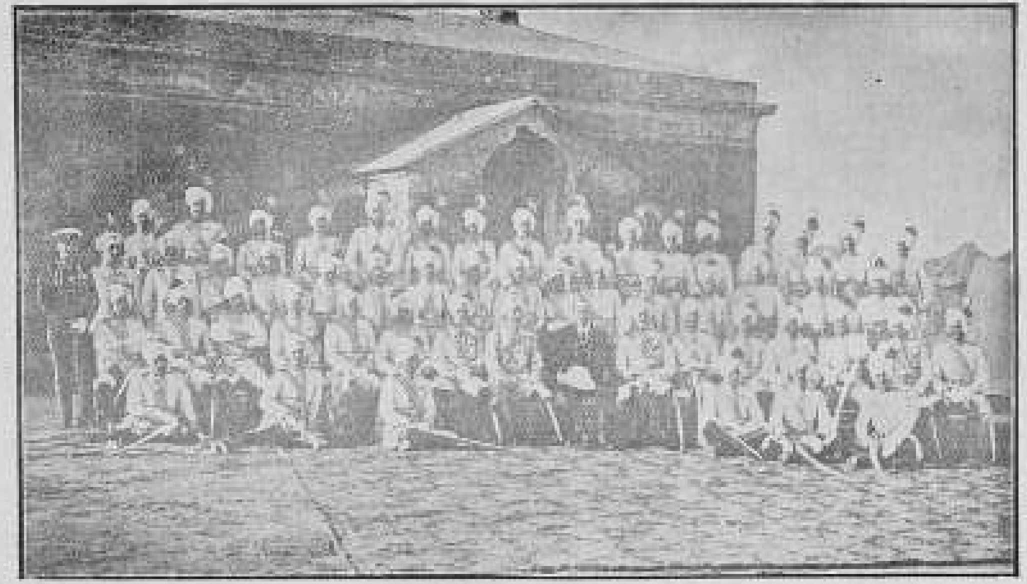
"In addition to contributing to the Indian Fund some Chiefs, namely, those *(sic)* of Kashmir, not content with subscribing himself to the Indian Fund, presided at a meeting of 20,000 people held recently at Srinagar, and delivered a stirring speech, in reponse to which large subscriptions were collected. The Maharaja Holkar offers free of charge all the horses in his State which may be suitable for Government purposes. Horses have also been offered by the Nizam's Government, by the Jam of Jamnagar and other Bombay States. Every Chief in the Bombay Presi-

H. H. The Maharaja of Gwalior.

H. H. The Maharaja of Mysore.

H. H. The Maharaja of Bikanir.

Captain Nawab Mahommed Hyat Khan.



The Imperial Cadet Corps.—: H. E. Lord Hardinge is seated at the centre.

dency has placed the resources of his State at the disposal of the Government, and all have made contributions to the Relief Fund. Loyal messages and offers have also been received from the Methar of Chitral and the tribes of the Khyber Agency, as well as from the Khyber Rifles.

Letters have been received from the most remote States in India, all of them marked by the deep sincerity of the desire to render some assistance, however humble, to the British Government in its hour of need. (Cheers.) Last, but not least, from beyond the borders of India have been received generous offers of assistance from the Nepal Durbar. The military resources of the State have been placed at the disposal of the British Government, and the Prime Minister has offered a sum of three lakhs of rupees to the Viceroy for the purchase of machine guns or field equipment for British and Gurkha regiments proceeding overseas, in addition to large donations from his private purse to the Prince of Wales's Fund and the Imperial Indian Relief Fund. To the 4th Gurkha Rifles, of which the Prime Minister is Honorary Colonel, the Prime Minister has offered Rs. 30,000, for the purchase of machine guns in the event of their going on service. The Dalai Lama of Tibet has offered a thousand Tibetan troops for service under the British Government. His Holiness also states that Lamas innumerable through the length and breadth of Tibet are offering prayers for the success of the British Army, and for the happiness of the souls of all victims of the war. (Cheers.)

"The same spirit has prevailed throughout British India. Hundreds of letters and telegrams have been received by the Viceroy expressing loyalty and desire to serve either in the field or by co-operation in India. Many hundreds of messages have also been received by local administrations. They came from communities and associations, religious, political and social, of all classes and creeds, and also from individuals, offering their resources or asking for an opportunity to prove their loyalty by personal service. The following may be mentioned as typical examples. The All-India Moslem League, the Bengal Presidency Moslem League, the Moslem Association of Rangoon, the Trustees of the Aligarh College, Behar Provincial Moslem League, the Central National Mahomedan Association of Calcutta, the Khoja Community and other followers of the Aga Khan, the Punjab Moslem League, the Mahomedans of Eastern Bengal, the citizens of Calcutta, Madras, Rangoon, and many other cities, the Behar Landholders' Association, the Madras Provincial Congress, the Taluqdars of Oudh, the Punjab Chiefs' Association, the United Provinces Provincial Congress, the Hindus of the Punjab, the Chief Khalsa Dewan, representing the orthodox Sikhs, the Bohra community of Bombay, and the Parsee community of Bombay. The Delhi Medical Association offer the field hospital that was sent to Turkey during the Balkan war. Bengali students offer their services for ambulance corps, and there were many other offers of medical aid. The Zemindars of Madras offered 500 horses. Among other practical steps taken to assist Government may be noted the holding of meetings to keep down prices and maintain public confidence and credit.

"All these have, with Commander-in-Chief's approval, already joined the Expeditionary Forces. The Maharaja Scindia of Gwalior and the Chiefs of Jaora and Dholpur, together with the Heir Apparent of Palanpur, were to their great regret, prevented from leaving their States.

"Twenty-seven of the larger States of India maintain Imperial Service Troops, and the services of every corps were immediately placed at the disposal of the Government of India on the outbreak of the war. The Viceroy has accepted from twelve States contingents of cavalry, infantry, sappers, and transport, besides the camel corps from Bikanir, and most of them have already embarked. As particular instances of the generosity and eager loyalty of the Chiefs the following may be quoted. Various Durbars have combined together to provide a hospital ship to be called the "Loyalty," for the use of the Expeditionary Forces. The Maharaja of Mysore has placed fifty lakhs of rupees at the disposal of the Government of India for expenditure in connection with the Expeditionary Force."

Mr. Roberts added that in addition similar offers had been made by Chiefs who happened to be at present in Europe. The Gaekwar of Baroda and the Maharaja of Bharatpur, to mention two only, had placed the whole resources of their State at the disposal of His Majesty's Government. The Indian community in England, including Indian students, had made loyal offers of service. Mr. Roberts concluded: "I feel confident that the House and country will feel deep appreciation of this magnificent demonstration of loyalty with which the princes and people of India have identified themselves with the cause of the Empire." (Loud cheers.)

Notable Utterances by Indians.

Mr. Dadabhoy's Message to India.*

WHAT calamity to the world is at present happening? War in Europe. What is an Indian's place in it? We are a people of the British Empire. Let us see what our duty and position are. If ever India expects to attain the former glory on the advanced character and scale of the modern British civilisation of liberty, humanity, justice and all that is good, great and divine, it shall be at the hands of the British people and as self-governing members of the British Empire. We are all British citizens of the great British Empire and that is at present our greatest pride.

On the other hand is Britain engaged in the present great struggle for some selfish purpose for the extension of her own dominion and power? No. It is simply for keeping her word of honour and for righteously discharging a solemn obligation for the peace and welfare of the minor and weak Powers. Fighting as the British people are at present in a righteous cause, to the good and glory of human dignity and civilisation, and moreover being the beneficent instruments of our own progress and civilisation, our duty is clear to do anything to support Britain's fight with our life and property.

I have all my life been more of a critic than a simple praiser of the British Rule in India, and I have not hesitated to say some hard things at times. I can, therefore, speak with most perfect candour and sincerity what the British character is, what the civilisation of the world owes to the British people for benefits in the past, as well as for benefits to come. Yes, I have not the least doubt in my mind that every individual of the vast mass of humanity of India will have but one desire in his heart, *viz.*, to support to the best of his ability and power the British people in their glorious struggle for justice, liberty, honour and true humane greatness and happiness.

The Princes and the people of India have made already spontaneous efforts and until the victorious end of this great struggle, no other thought than that of supporting whole-heartedly the British Nation should enter the mind of India.

* Letter addressed to the Indian Public on Aug. 12.

The Hon. Sir Pherozeshah Mehta.*

At this juncture of supreme gravity we have met together here to-day in the public hall, men of different races and religions, of different creeds and communities, English and Hindu, Parsee and Mussalmans, to proclaim with one heart, one soul and one mind that these differences distinguish but do not divide us, and that in the presence of this solemn situation we are merged in one general and universal denomination, the proud denomination of local and devoted subjects of the British Crown. (Loud and prolonged cheers.) As such we are met together to lay at the feet of our august Sovereign, our beloved King-Emperor, our unswerving fealty, our unshaken allegiance and our enthusiastic homage.

Ladies and gentlemen, often enough have we met in this historic hall to speak of our rights, our charters and our privileges. At this solemn moment we can only remember that we owe sacred duties and holy obligations to that British Rule under whose auspices the lofty destinies of this great and magnificent land are being moulded for over a century, and under whose wise and provident and righteous statesmanship the welfare, happiness and prosperity of the country are being incessantly promoted. (Loud Cheers.)

The Hon. Mr. Malaviya.†

The destinies of our dear country are linked closely with the destinies of Great Britain. Any reverse to Britain means a serious menace to India. * * * I do not hesitate to say that I am loyal to the British Throne because I love my country.

We are not blind to the fact there are many defects in the existing system of administration, that there are many grievances which require to be redressed. * * * * But making allowance for that, I believe that no foreign nation that I can think of, would have governed India better, than on the wh le the British have done. It is also our settled convention that our progress under British rule will be far greater in the future than it has been in the past, and that a day will come, distant though it be at present, when India will under the ægis of the British Crown, attain self-government such as the Dominion of Canada and the other self-governing colonies of Britain enjoy.

* At the great meeting in Bombay on August 13.

† Speech at Allahabad.

Dr. Sir S. Subramania Iyer.*

As we know the war is one which affects the safety of the Empire to which we belong, and is thus such as it were touching the person of every man, woman and child in India. Moreover it is not a struggle prompted by motives of aggrandisement but has been provoked by the flagrant breach of solemn engagements by a power which has for some years been a constant menace to the peace of Europe and a great part of the world. No wonder therefore that our Ruling Chiefs, Maharajahs and Rajahs are vying which each other in proclaiming their readiness to stand by and support their Sovereign, their Liege Lord and their personal friend; and we, the people, should not in our turn lay behind in our duty. * * * Though this war will inflict incalculable harm on all the parties concerned, yet out of such evil good must come and will come. One of the advantages which India will gain may be said to have already accrued. For no one however malicious he may be will, in future, be able successfully to suggest doubts as to our loyalty to the Empire. No one can hereafter twist our representations, as to our wants and requirements as ebullitions of deep discontent and hidden disaffection. And this to my mind is no small advantage, as it will conduce to render the relation, between the Indian people and the great British nation one of true brotherliness. * * *

I am sure I am but giving audible expression to the wishes of the most thoughtful and the most devoted of His Majesty's Indian subjects, when I say that they will consider nothing a greater privilege than to be allowed to serve their Sovereign as Volunteers. They will hold it an honour superior to that of a seat in the Executive Councils, and even in the Council of the Secretary of State. Their fervent appeal is: "Trust us and that trust we cannot betray and we shall never betray." It is to be hoped that the spontaneous out-burst of loyalty which took place the very moment this news of war reached India, from one end of the country to the other, will serve at no distant time to that appeal being favourably entertained and a concession granted which will raise us in our estimation, as well as in the eyes of the world at large, whilst at the same time the concession will prove a source of strength to the Empire that will not be negligible.

* As President of the Loyal demonstration in Madras, on Aug. 21.

The Hon. Dr. Sundar Lal.*

I think we as citizens of this great empire ought to show in some earnest, practical way our anxiety to give such support as we can and to help as far as lies in our power the cause of the empire (Applause). In India we have a large, well-trained army, both of Europeans and Indians, and I have no doubt if ever the necessity arises for either European or Indian troops to be sent to the front in the present war they will acquit themselves with credit to both themselves and India (Applause).

Raja Sir Harnam Singh, K. C. I. E.†

If any troops are to leave India for active warfare, let us sincerely hope that Indian as well as British soldiers will be sent in manly comradeship and on equal terms. It will be a statesmanlike step as well as of vast popular advantage. It will raise unprecedented enthusiasms in India as a token of signal confidence in His Majesty's Indian subjects and it will show to the world, to foes and allies alike, what the Indian Empire means and what Indian troops can achieve on the field of battle.

H. H. the Aga Khan.

He was confident that the spirit of devotion would be maintained whatever fluctuations of war might occur before the Allies were victorious. The loyalty of the Indian Moslem to the King-Emperor was proof against any attempts of German Diplomacy to create a bastard pan-Islamic sentiment in favour of the "mailed fist."

There was no need to differentiate between various communities and races of India. All were united and eager to support the Imperial cause gratified that their material representatives were to assist in the European war for the first time in history.

This advance in the growth of Indian co-operation in the responsibilities of the Empire would be another great stone in the great landmark of the beneficent viceroyalty. He was convinced that the war would definitely mark the watershed between the old and the new and in the common service and sacrifice there would be a way of permanent loving union between Indian and British sentiment and reconciliation in any outstanding divergencies on domestic matters.

* At the meeting at Allahabad held before the Indian troops left for the War.

† At the Simla demonstration held before the Indian troops left for the war.

Nawab Fateh Ali Khan, C. I. E.*

Apart from the dictates of human sympathy, our national and political interests as well as the requirements of the times demand us to keep in view the following :—

(1) To help the British Government with money and life, as it is our Preserver.

(2) To hold fast to the British rule and never let it go out of our hands under pressure of external influences as its continuance is essential to our existence.

(3) To remember that the declaration of neutrality made by Turkey and Afghanistan are further proofs of the fact that England is on the right.

(4) Never to forget that Germany has for the last 20 or 25 years continuously striven to capture Turkey.

The Hon. Mr. Muzrul Haque.†

We are Mussalmans and we are Indians, and we have to perform our duty in this double capacity. I am happy to believe that these two interests do not clash but are entirely identical. Without disclosing any confidence reposed in me, I can say from my own personal experience that if any country is desirous of peace it is Turkey.

* * *

Our motherland is at war with Austria and Germany and it is our bounden duty to rally to a man and stand by the side of our Gracious Sovereign.

Mr. Bal Gangadar Tilak.‡

It has been well said that British Rule is conferring inestimable benefit on India not only by its civilized methods of administration but also thereby bringing together the different nationalities and races of India, so that a united Nation may grow out of it in course of time. I do not believe that if we had any other rulers except the liberty-loving British, they would have conceived and assisted us in developing such a national ideal. Every one who has the interests of India at heart is fully alive to this and similiar advantages of the British rule and the present crisis is, in my opinion, a blessing in disguise inasmuch as it has universally evoked our united feelings and sentiments of loyalty to the British Throne.

At such a crisis it is, I firmly hold, the duty of every Indian, be he great or small, rich or poor, to support and assist His Majesty's Government, to the best of his ability.

* As president of a public meeting held at Lahore on the 6th September.

† Address to the Patna Muslims.

‡ From *The Mahratta*.

London Indians and Lord Crewe.

A number of prominent Indians in London, Sir M. M. Bhownaghree, Lala Lajpat Rai, Mr. Justice Abdul Rahim, Mr. Bhupendra Nath Basu and others, addressed the following letter to the Secretary of State for India for submission to His Majesty the King-Emperor :—

At the present juncture, when the forces and armaments of the British Empire are called upon to defend the nations in alliance with His Majesty and to protect the vital interests of his vast dominions against the aggressive action of a foreign Power, we, the subjects of His Majesty's Indian Empire, who are now residing in the metropolis, feel it our duty and privilege to express what we believe is the prevailing feeling throughout India—namely, a sincere desire for the success of British arms in the struggle.

We have not the slightest doubt that, as on previous occasions when the British forces were engaged in defending the interests of the Empire, so on the present, the princes and peoples of India will readily and willingly co-operate to the best of their ability and opportunities in securing that end by placing the resources of their country at his Majesty's disposal.

We wish it to be clearly understood that, whatever differences on questions affecting the internal administration of our country might exist in peaceful times, the devotion of the people of India to the British Throne in the face of an external foe is bound to ensure such a feeling of harmony and internal peace that they can have no other thought than that of being united with the British nation in a whole-hearted endeavour to secure a speedy victory for the Empire.

With our fervent prayer that by the blessing of God this object may be realised before long, we beg your Lordship, to submit to His Majesty the King-Emperor this respectful expression of our loyal sentiments.

The follawing reply was sent on behalf of Lord Crewe :—

I am directed by the Secretary of State for India to inform you and your co-signatories that he has great pleasure in submitting to his Majesty the King-Emperor the notable tribute of loyalty offered at this crisis by Indian gentlemen in London. The Marquess of Crewe desires to say that he is deeply impressed by the sentiment of sincere and unselfish devotion to the common cause of the Empire, which finds eloquent expression in the Address. He has telegraphed to his Excellency the Viceroy the substance of the letter.

DADABHAI NAOROJI.

G. K. GOKHALE.

M. K. GANDHI.

SURENDRANATH BANNERJEA.

MR. YUSUF ALI, I.C.S.

In the course of a recent speech at the East India Association Mr. Yusuf Ali, I. C. S. (*Rtd.*) said:—

The rally of India round the flag has been so splendid, so spontaneous and so unanimous, that it is well both for India and England to realize the full meaning of this epoch-making achievement. * * * *

India's rally—and indeed the rally of the whole Empire—is of that nature. Australia and Canada, New Zealand and South Africa, and many a minor Britain lapped on the rocking waves—all tell the same tale. The treachery of Maritz only shows up in relief the loyalty of the Afrikander, as the haste and passion of the *Komagata Maru* Sikhs in Calcutta give point to the loyal outpourings of the Khalsa in meeting assembled in the Golden Temple in Amritsar. Count not the value of the golden hearts merely by what they send, either in men or money. Measure it not only by their glowing words, or even by their deeds of passionate patriotism. Pierce the veil; see the heart within—a surging, tumultuous current of vigorous red blood flows through their throbbing arteries, and Britannia is indeed proud to be the mother of a brood so quickly afire in a glorious cause, so firm in their resolve to give to their mother of their fairest, noblest and strongest.

What does the rally mean for India? I recall * * * the words of a prophet of England written a century ago—to Wordsworth's high rejection of a "lore of nicely calculated less or more." Leave to politics and law the theory of compensations and considerations. They are no doubt important in everyday life. But bring not the high emotions of a great crisis to a lower plane by talking about these when the heart beats to a nobler purpose, and echoes by its throbs the sentiments of a united Empire. Let a simple Indian soldier speak for himself: "The Empire in self-defence has appealed to all its subjects. If it had been threatened in India, British soldiers would have gone there; but as it is threatened in Europe, we have come here." And then he added, converting into a glorious sentiment new to India an obvious formula embodied in his instructions in a wholly matter of fact sense: "We are indeed Indians, but also Britishers."

What does the rally mean for England? Let there be no unctuous phrases of self-congratulation or self-satisfaction. Justice never produced popular waves of emotion. Efficiency never stirred men's blood or gave a generous glow to sentiment and pride. These things are well in the balancing of accounts, in the reckoning of the debtor and creditor sides of a ledger. But now is the time for a warm-hearted shake of the hand. This is the hour when men speak little, but what little they say, smacks of high enterprise. Shall we be comrades in arms, and generously recognize each other's good qualities?

That is the key in which Lord Crewe spoke. As Secretary of State for India, he knows what he is saying in the generous tribute which he pays to Indian troops; "Highsouled men of first-rate training and representing an ancient civilisation." No less generous is Lord Curzon, who expresses for this country the feelings of pride in India's solidarity and India's passionate response. But most heart-stirring of all is the appeal of one who knows intimately every part of his Empire as no Sovereign before him knew it—one whose *chahr-i-mubārak* was seen with pride and glory by millions of men in Bombay, Delhi, and Calcutta, less than three short years ago. "The noble traditions of courage and chivalry of my Indian Army, whose honour and fame are in your hands"—what Indian soldier would not be fired by such eulogy? What Indian civilian would not feel a thrill of emotion at such stimulating words? Again: "I look to all my Indian soldiers to uphold the *izzat* of the British *Raj* against an aggressive and relentless enemy." The King-Emperor calls. India salutes and falls in, ready to die for country, Padishah, flag and Empire.

The apostles of mailed fists and rattling sabres, the preachers of the gospel of blood and fire, make light of the human factor in history, or in the human factor subordinate the spiritual to the material. But it is this higher side of the human factor which will govern every struggle, and be the final arbiter among men and nations. It is this factor that is forging a link between India and England stronger than chains of administrative steel—more reliable than armed battalions. And what made it such a living dominant force? The personality of India's gracious Sovereign, who resolved, with his noble Consort, to enthrone himself in the heart of India in waking a new life and force from the echoes of historic Delhi.

The Sovereign speaking to his people, the Sovereign in the midst of his people, the Sovereign smiling and trusting when Prudence spoke of danger and wise heads appealed to precedents, the Sovereign who gave dignity to splendour by the magnificent simplicity of his own daily life, and rescued Court functions from their terrors by

kindly words, gracious smiles, and quiet acts of practical charity—this was the influence which captivated India, and is in itself sufficient to awaken the imagination of its nobility and its people. The war has provided a practical outlet. Let us take the feeling at its flood, and count it among the richest gains of the Imperial ferment.

* * * * *

Fight, ye glorious soldiers, Gurkha or Sikh, Moslem, Rajput or Brahman! Fight for the name of India, and make it glorious with your blood! Great are your privileges. You have comrades in the British Army whose fellowship and lead are a priceless possession to you. They have fought and conquered in these very fields for centuries. They are as staunch and steady against the crushing weight of numbers as they are bold and enterprising in the hour of dash and gallantry. They have something of your own mystic sentiment and spirituality, however different may be their manner of showing it. Their chivalry in the most trying turns of fortune will open your eyes to those knightly qualities which your ancestors enshrined in their legends. In the long battle line of which you will form part will be the renowned soldiers of France and the heroic army of Belgium, who know not despair and are never more courageous than when facing overwhelming odds. You have a very high example to emulate, and we know you will be worthy of it.

Think of their devastated fields, their ruined industries, their desecrated homes, their slaughtered children and kinsmen. Such dangers may have seemed remote from your homes but what keeps your homes together? The flag which protects you is threatened. The foe is relentless, and the object of his hate and envy is nothing less than the splendid fabric of the Empire in which you live. Your children, your homes, your kindred and your land are threatened as surely as the heart of the Empire. Strike, and show what your prowess is worth! Shoot straight, grasp your lance and ride at the foe! Charge with your bayonets and sound the trumpet of victory! Your King-Emperor has told you that he has drawn the sword for a righteous purpose, and that he will not sheath it until that purpose has been achieved. Be yours a share in the achievement!

And those you have left behind? You are fighting for them. Leave them to the tender care of a grateful country whose standard you are bearing aloft. An appreciative Empire will know your worth, and honour and cherish the loved ones whom you will ennoble with the undying fame of your deeds through centuries of history!

* * * * *

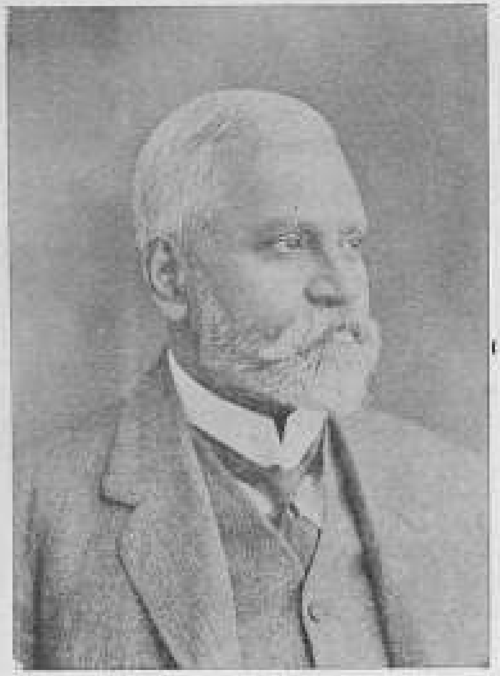
Remember the spirit of the great hero whom you have just buried. Bobs Bahadur is still speaking to you. He died as he had lived—simply, and with the soldiers, British, Colonial, and Indian, whom he loved so well. And yet there was a special bond that united him to India. He was born in Cawnpore, and laboured forty-one years in India. When he marched as a Sepoy General through the Bolan Pass, difficulties melted before him like the snow on the Shutar Garden in the summer. When he led his famous march to Kandahar he disappeared as one who leads a great adventure, but reappeared to the view of the world as a great General crowned with victory. In South Africa he gave his only son's life, and won laurels for his aged brow, which rank him as a good and humane man as well as a great soldier. And now he went to see his old soldiers, and died happy because he had seen them. What legacy can be greater than such an imperishable name—unsullied in the battlefield and ever associated with the call of duty? Will not India fight all the more nobly and proudly for such an example?

Such, O England! is the response of India to thy call. She wishes to stand shoulder to shoulder with thee, and solemnly, devotedly, affectionately to salute the Flag!

MR. M. K. GANDHI.*

As a passive resister I discovered that a passive resister has to make good his claim to passive resistance, no matter under what circumstances he finds himself, and I discovered that the British Empire had certain ideals with which I have fallen in love, and one of those ideals is that every subject of the British Empire has the freest scope possible for his energies and honour and whatever he thinks is due to his conscience. I think that this is true of the British Empire, as it is not true of any other Government. (Applause.) I feel, as you here perhaps know, that I am no lover of any Government, and I have more than once said that that Government is best which governs least. And I have found that it is possible for me to be governed least under the British Empire. Hence my loyalty to the British Empire. (Loud applause.)

* At the Madras Law Dinner.



BABU BHUPENDRANATH BASU.

DR. SIR S. SUBRAHMANIA AIYER.

THE HON. MR. MAZRUL HAQUE.

USUF ALI, I.C.S.

Mr. Gandhi and Lord Crewe.

The following letter, signed by Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Major N. P. Sinha, Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta, and some fifty other Indians, was sent to the Under Secretary of State for India:—

"It was thought desirable by many of us that during the crisis that has overtaken the Empire and whilst many Englishmen, leaving their ordinary vocations in life, are responding to the Imperial call, those Indians who are residing in the United Kingdom and who can at all do so should place themselves unconditionally at the disposal of the Authorities.

"With a view of ascertaining the feeling of the resident Indian population, the undersigned sent out a circular letter to as many Indians in the United Kingdom as could be approached during the thirty-eight hours that the organisers gave themselves. The response has been generous and prompt, and, in the opinion of the undersigned representatives of His Majesty's subjects from the Indian Empire at present residing in the different parts of the United Kingdom.

"On behalf of ourselves and those whose names appear on the list appended hereto, we beg to offer our services to the authorities. We venture to trust that the Right Hon'ble the Marquess of Crewe will approve of our offer and secure its acceptance by the proper authority. We would respectfully emphasise the fact that the one dominant idea guiding us is that of rendering such humble assistance as we may be considered capable of performing, as an earnest of our desire to share the responsibilities of membership of this great Empire if we would share its privileges.

The following reply, which is dated the 18th August, was received by Mr. Gandhi from Mr. Charles Roberts, M. P.:—

"Lord Crewe desires me to thank you for your letter of the 14th, and to express his warm recognition of your loyal offer of service.

"His Lordship desires to accept the offer in the spirit in which it has been made, and he has given his earnest consideration to the manner in which the services of the Indian community can be utilised to the best interest of the Empire.

"He is disposed to think that it would not be advisable for Indian students to volunteer for military duties. If they enlist in the force which Lord Kitchener is now raising, they may not be able to leave it for three years' time. His Lordship is very averse to encouraging them, without the sanction of their parents, to take a step which would so seriously interrupt the purpose for which they came to this country, and which might prejudice their whole future. Neither is it possible to advise them to join the Territorial Force, as the establishment is now complete and a long-waiting list is already in existence, so that at the present it is impossible to secure enrolment in that Force.

"There is, however, another sphere of public duty not less important, for which in this country we are in the habit of depending very largely upon voluntary assistance, and this consists in rendering aid to the sick and wounded. The number of these in the present war may unhappily be large, and, if that should prove to be the case, the military hospitals and military staff may have difficulty in coping with the demands made upon them. It will, therefore, be necessary to create temporary and voluntary organisations to meet this emergency. This duty is already being undertaken by a very large number of Englishmen and women in the Voluntary Aid Detachment of the British Red Cross Society, and it is to work of this kind that Lord Crewe would direct your attention.

"His Lordship suggests that a Committee should be formed among the Indian residents and visitors in London, and that they should undertake to get up an Indian Voluntary Aid Contingent. It is understood that Mr. James Cantlie, who has taken an active part in the organisation of the Voluntary Aid Detachment of the Red Cross Society, has offered to train and drill an Indian Voluntary Aid Contingent if a sufficient number of persons are prepared to undergo a course of instruction. Lord Crewe notices that several of the signatories to your letter are qualified medical men, and if they will co-operate with Mr. Cantlie there is reason to hope that the Indian Voluntary Aid Contingent would become one of the most efficient detachments in the Kingdom.

"It is, of course, quite impossible at the present moment to guarantee that the services of the Indian Voluntary Aid Contingent will be utilised in any given direction. If the number of sick and wounded should fortunately not be large the ordinary military and charitable hospitals will be able to deal with them. But the prevalent feeling in this country which, as your letter shows, is shared by Indians, is that we ought all to prepare ourselves to render efficient service to the Empire should the necessity arise."

India's Pecuniary Help.

The foregoing account gives the reader a splendid idea of the magnificent help which the Ruling Princes and the peoples of India have given to the Imperial Government in various shapes. But their help has not stopped with this. They have contributed liberally in common with others to the three Funds, particulars of which are given below.

The Prince of Wales Fund.

The Prince of Wales as Treasurer of the National Relief Fund issued on August 7, the following eloquent appeal for funds to relieve distress:—

All must realize that the present time of deep anxiety will be followed by one of considerable distress among the people of this country least able to bear it.

We most earnestly pray that their sufferings may be neither long nor bitter. But we cannot wait until the need presses heavily upon us.

The means of relief must be ready in our hands. To allay anxiety will go some way to stay distress.

A National Fund has been founded, and I am proud to act as its Treasurer.

My first duty is to ask for generous and ready support, and I know that I shall not ask in vain.

At such a moment we all stand by one another, and it is to the heart of the British people that I confidently make this most earnest appeal.

EDWARD P.

The Indian Relief Fund.*

H. E. THE VICEROY'S APPEAL.

War has been forced upon the British Empire, and an Expeditionary Force from India is being prepared to take its place in the defence of the Empire across the seas. The Force will be a large one and will include a very considerable number of our brave Indian Regiments as well as some of the Imperial Service Troops from the Native States.

There will be distress among the families of those who are going from India to the war, and unhappily there may be destitute widows and orphans as a result of the war.

The need for large funds is, therefore, urgent and it is desirable that steps should be taken without delay to collect them. For this purpose, it is proposed to create a Central Committee over which I will myself preside. It will include Their Excellencies the Governor of Bengal, the Governor of Madras, the Governor of Bombay and the Commander-in-Chief, the Members of Executive Councils, the Heads of other Local Governments and Administrations and the following Ruling Chiefs:—Their Highnesses the Maharajah of Bikanir, the Begum of Bhopal, the Maharajah of Gwalior, the Nizam of Hyderabad, the Maharajah of Indore, the Maharajah of Jaipur, the Maharajah Regent of Jodhpur, the Maharajah of Kashmir, the Maharajah of Kota, the Maharajah of Mysore, the Maharajah of Patiala, the Maharajah of Rewa and the Maharajah of Udaipur.

Under its control an executive committee will be formed and local branches will be constituted.

I appeal with confidence to the Ruling Chiefs, Nobles, Merchants, and people of India, both European and Indian, to come forward, each according to his means, to help to alleviate distress of all kinds due to the war, and especially the distress and suffering that war must necessarily entail upon the families and dependants of those who will be braving death and enduring hardships for the safety and common interests of the Empire.

Subscriptions to the Imperial Indian Relief Fund will be received by the following banks which have kindly agreed to receive them at their head offices and branches:—The Bank of Bengal, Calcutta, the Bank of Bombay, the Bank of Madras, the Alliance Bank of Simla and Delhi. Sir A. Ker of Simla, has kindly consented to act as Treasurer of the Fund and (1) Mr. F. W. Johnston and (2) Major John Mackenzie have been appointed Joint Secretaries.

All correspondences should be addressed to Major John Mackenzie, Viceregal Lodge, Simla.

The following is the text of a circular letter which has been sent out by the Joint Honorary Secretary of the Imperial Indian Relief Fund:—

A generous and prompt response has been made to the appeal issued by His Excellency the Viceroy, and all classes of the community by their contributions to the Imperial Indian Relief Fund have shown their desire to join in the alleviation of distress in India caused by the War. In order that the Fund may be employed in the most useful manner, His Excellency the Viceroy has deemed it advisable to take steps to co-ordinate the work which is now being done, so as to enable the collection of the Fund and the work of its distribution to be carried out in the most efficient and economical way; and has, with this object, appointed a small Executive Committee in Simla, of

* Issued on the 16th August.

which he himself is the President and Sir William Meyer, Vice-President. This Committee has met and I am to communicate to you the proposals which it has made and which have received the approval of His Excellency.

It is, in the first place, desirable that a small working committee similar to that appointed by His Excellency in Simla, should—if this has not already been done—be appointed at each provincial head-quarter, and further, that local committees should, with the approval of the Provincial Committee, be appointed at the head-quarters of each district or native state under the political control of the Local Government. The primary function of these local committees will be the organisation of the work of collection and, to the extent indicated below, the relief of acute local distress among the poorer classes of the people; but they will also, in certain areas, be utilized in bringing to light and investigating cases of distress among the families of soldiers and followers of the Indian Army.

The primary object of the Fund is to relieve distress among the families of those who have gone to the front and to assist the widows and orphans of those who died in service. In utilising the amounts collected, no distinction will be drawn between officer and private, European and Indian, combatant and non-combatant. The test will be absence on active service and straitened circumstances among the family.

The Executive Committee have carefully considered the organisation best designed to effect the object in view. It is proposed to utilise, as regards the families of British soldiers, etc., the machinery of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Families' Association in India, which from its work and organisation is in the most favourable position to distribute relief among this class in the most effective manner. Such allotments as may be necessary will be put at the disposal of this Association.

As regards the Indian Army, including followers and civilians who have gone with the troops, it has been arranged that a list of these, with such particulars of their families and residences as may be available, will be furnished by the Military authorities to each District Officer as regards those resident in his District. The District Officer, with the assistance of the local committee, will, it is thought, be in the best position to bring to light cases of distress, to investigate claims and to advise as to the amount of assistance which should be given to the families of Indian soldiers and followers living in their villages. In order that claims may be promptly dealt with, a committee will be appointed in each Brigade area, under the orders of His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. The disbursements of relief will be made by these committees, the necessary funds being provided by the Central Committee.

In cases where the families are living in the regimental lines, the assistance of the civil authorities will, of course, not be necessary and the officer in charge will report cases direct to the local Military Committee. In the case of those who die or are killed on service, the organisation of the Patriotic Fund will be employed, and the resources of that Fund will be supplemented when necessary from the Imperial Indian Relief Fund as casualties, occur. Those responsible for the management will make enquiries and distribute relief.

The second object of the Fund is the relief of acute local distress among the poorer classes of the people caused directly by the War and through no fault of their own. It is not the intention to make good any losses suffered by the prosperous or comparatively well-to-do who, like all other subjects of the Empire, must bear their share of the Imperial burden; nor is it the intention that the Fund shall maintain in idleness labourers whom the War has thrown out of employment, if they are in a position to find other employment elsewhere, but make no effort to do so. In short, the assistance from the Fund is intended to be given only to the poor classes of the civil population who through the effects of the war, and no lack of effort on their own part, are in actual want of the necessaries of life.

As the military claims will vary considerably in the various provinces, and as the amount so distributed will bear no relation to the amount collected in any local area, it is desirable to limit the extent to which the Fund should be utilised for the relief of local distress among the ordinary civil population. The information as to privation among this class and the amount of relief required can be known only to Provincial and Local Committees. Such Committees may, moreover, have received subscriptions which the donors may have asked to be used solely for local relief. It is, therefore, suggested that out of the general subscriptions received in each province the Provincial and Local Committees should, for the present, retain 25 per cent. and utilise this sum in such a way as they may deem suitable. The balance should be placed at the disposal of the Central Fund. Should local civil distress be on a scale which would not

require the whole of this 25 per cent. the Provincial Committee would doubtless place the balance at the disposal of the Central Fund. Should it be on a scale which the allotment retained cannot meet, application for a further allotment could be made to the Central Committe, who would be prepared to consider such applications as their funds permitted, having regard to claims elsewhere and the consideration that the first claims on the Fund must be on behalf of the families of those who have actually left India to share in the War.

I am finally desired to mention that several generous offers of assistance in kind have been made, such as gifts of wheat or tea. For these offers His Excellency is very grateful, but their disposal is outside the scope of the fund, though there would, of course, be no objection to their acceptance by the Provincial Committees, should it be possible to utilise them in relieving local civil distress. As regards the utilisation of such gifts in kind for the troops in the field, His Excellency desires me to point out that it is only the military authorities who are in a position to say whether such gifts can properly be utilised in the field. * * * * * *

As regards, however, offers of assistance directly concerned with hospital requirements, *e.g.*, comforts and gifts for the sick and wounded in hospitals, hospital ships and ambulance trains, arrangements have already been made for the organisation of such assistance through the St. John Ambulance Association. His Excellency would, therefore, be glad if all offers of assistance of this nature could be made direct to the Association, instead of to the Imperial Indian Relief Fund.

The Madras War Fund.*

H.E. LORD PENTLAND'S APPEAL.

The Madras War Fund has been established to provide an outlet for the generosity, loyalty and enthusiasm of those who desire to strengthen the work of the fighting forces of the British Crown engaged in the war, to succour the sick and wounded in the field and to provide clothing, necessaries, medical and other comforts for the troops.

This fund is entirely separate from the fund on behalf of which H.E. the Viceroy has issued his appeal and which is to be devoted to the relief of distress of all kinds devoted to war, especially among the families of soldiers who are going to the front.

The following extract from a speech delivered by His Excellency the Governor at a meeting of the General Committee of the Madras Branch of the Imperial Indian Relief Fund held at the Government House on September 30, will explain more fully the object and scope of this fund :—

The existence of this fund is due, as you know, in the first instance to the patriotic action of leading Madras Zemindars whom I need not again name. Their action has been most generously supported by their brother Zamindars and other leading men and in particular I wish to mention the Maharaja of Travancore and the Rajah of Cochin for their hearty support of this movement. I have also to thank a very large number of all sorts and conditions of men in every district of the Presidency for their warm support of the Madras War Fund. I would also thank on my behalf and on that of Her Excellency, the ladies, European and Indian, for the devoted work which they are doing to assist the Ladies' depot of that Fund. The fund now amounts to more than 17 lakhs. You may be interested to know what we are doing. We are carrying out both of the purposes originally suggested of the Fund. We are sending a cargo of horses to England for the use of the army in the field.

The second purpose of the Fund, as you will remember, has been the provision of a Hospital ship for the Indian troops. This also is making good progress. Through the kindness of Lord Inchcape and the B. I. S. N. Company their new ship *Tanda* has been obtained on generous terms and she will I trust before long arrive here to be fitted out and completely equipped as a Hospital ship for Indian troops. The help we have received in this matter is not confined to the B. I. S. N. Company. The M. & S. M. Railway with their workshops and many leading firms and individuals have come forward most generously to help us by work done on special terms and by gifts to help us to equip this ship which is to be rechristened the *Madras*, while she is so employed. * *

I should like to mention another most valuable and characteristic method of help to this enterprise which has only lately been intimated to me, namely, the desire of many people who have already contributed to contribute further to the maintenance of this ship by helping to raise a recurring monthly expenditure sufficient to keep her flag flying during the whole continuance of the war. This I need hardly say will be a crowning evidence of the generosity of the Madras Presidency and their willingness to do everything in their power to help the cause which they have at heart and all those who have subscribed to this fund which is a signal mark of patriotism and generosity of this Presidency will, I am sure, long remember with satisfaction the infinite comfort and blessing which it may hope to bring to the sick and wounded of the Expeditionary Force which India is contributing to the fighting forces of the Crown.

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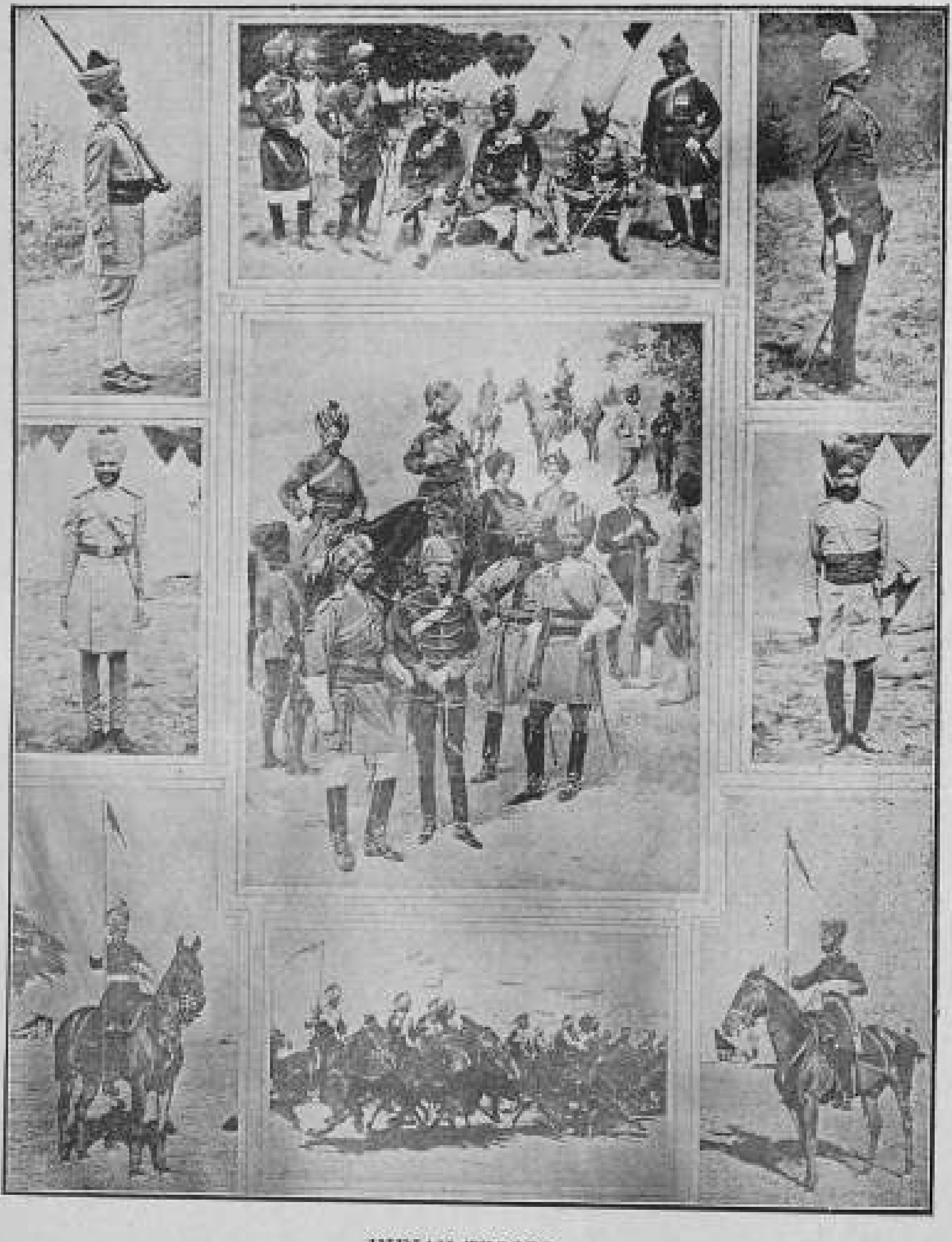
* Published on August 24.

H. H. THE NIZAM OF HYDERABAD.



INDIAN TROOPS.

A Sepoy of the Indian Line, A Group of Indian Officers. An Officer of the 18th Bengal Lancers.
A non-commissioned Officer. The King's "own" Indian Regiment One of the 14th Lancers.
[Indian Lancer. A Lancer Regiment Preparing to charge. Indian Lancer.

[With acknowledgments to "The Illustrated London News."]

The Reward of Indian Loyalty.

(From the New Statesman, London).

IT is now clear beyond a shadow of doubt that the war is not going to be limited to Europe, its consequences will be world-wide. This no longer depends on Turkey and Greece joining the combatants with consequences in Egypt and Arabia. The step taken by Japan in giving an ultimatum to Germany threatens to carry the war also to the other end of Asia. Whatever may be the result to the parties, it is apparent that when at last the war comes to an end, not only the map of Europe, but practically that of the whole world, is going to be recast. With three Continents—Europe, Asia and Africa—engaged in the carnage, and the conflagration threatening to be world-wide one shudders to think of its after effects. England, some say, is determined that this war shall be the last of its kind and that it must end the military despotism represented by both Germany and Russia. This war, such writers continue, is in support of the smaller nationalities, and in vindication of the liberties of the people, as against militarists, and against capitalists interested in the manufacture of armaments. So far good, but one is rather sorry to observe that these eminent thinkers and publicists who are discussing the future always exclude Asia, with its teeming millions, and Africa, with its huge coloured population, from their calculations. It is obvious that all Asia cannot remain for ever contented with the position of subordination which it at present occupies. The Russo-Japanese War stirred Asia to its depths, and this war is going to stir it still further. Japan and China are apparently going to play a part in the coming events, and although the voice of discontent, and what is called sedition, is for the time being hushed in India, that country is very far from being satisfied with the condition of things that prevails within its boundaries, or with the treatment that it receives from the British Government. Everyone, who has watched events in India, knows that there is a great deal of real discontent there, and unless the British handle the situation in a spirit of liberal statesmanship, and make large political concessions, the situation might easily and rapidly grow very grave. The news from India indicates that she is prepared to stand by the Empire whole-heartedly in this crisis.

INDIAN ATTITUDE EXPLAINED.

There is no fear of any complications arising. But this does not justify our concluding that India forgets her grievances against the English Government. What the present attitude of the Indians establishes is that they will stand by the Empire in any quarrel that England may have with the European Powers. The only other European Powers with ambitions towards India are Russia and Germany. Russia the Indians hate, and for Germany they have no love. What the Indians aspire to is political independence—not an exchange of masters. They would rather keep their connection with the British Empire, and prefer to remain in it, if only they could be allowed to share in the privileges of its membership, instead of continuing in their present dependent position. Their readiness to help England in this crisis with men and resources shows that they are prepared to share the responsibilities of the Empire. In fact, the burden of Empire has always fallen on them in a greater portion than on the other Oversea Dominions of His Majesty. It is only of recent years that the self-governing colonies have given evidence of their sense of responsibility for the safety of the Empire as against European enemies. Even now, if properly analysed, their offers and services cannot be compared with those made by India. I do not desire in any way to under-estimate and under-value the Colonial offers of help to the Mother-country in this crisis, nor do I say this in any carping spirit.

VALUE OF INDIA TO ENGLAND.

My object is to emphasize the value of India to the Mother-country as the most important part of its Empire. It need not be repeated that without India, the British Empire would be a much feebler affair. My object, then, is to invite attention to the necessity of considering the needs of Asia, and more particularly the claims of India if it is desired to establish permanent peace. There can be no durable peace in the world unless the civilised West puts into practice its profession of liberty, humanity, and fraternity, not only in

☞ *The annual subscription to the Indian Review* **is Rs.** *5 (Five) only including postage. Subscription can commence from any month. If you have not already seen the Review send postage stamps for As. Two for a specimen copy to G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras. Current issues (As. 8.) are not given as specimen copies.*

Europe, but throughout the whole world. It may be that the different parts of the world require different treatment, but the object should be to put an end everywhere not only to military but also to political despotism, and to give relief to all who suffer therefrom. If it is realised 'and not to realise this will be tantamount to a deliberate shutting of the eyes' that Asia cannot remain contented with a position of political subjection then no settlement can be final which keeps her political aspirations out of calculations. If it is desirable to put an end to wars among the European nations it is equally desirable that efforts should be made to remove the chances of any conflict between Europe and Asia. Asia ought to be made to feel that her legitimate aspirations will not be ignored, and that the relations between Europe and Asia shall in future be those of sisters engaged in the common service of humanity and not those of exploiters and exploited.

LOYALTY AND POLITICAL CONCESSIONS.

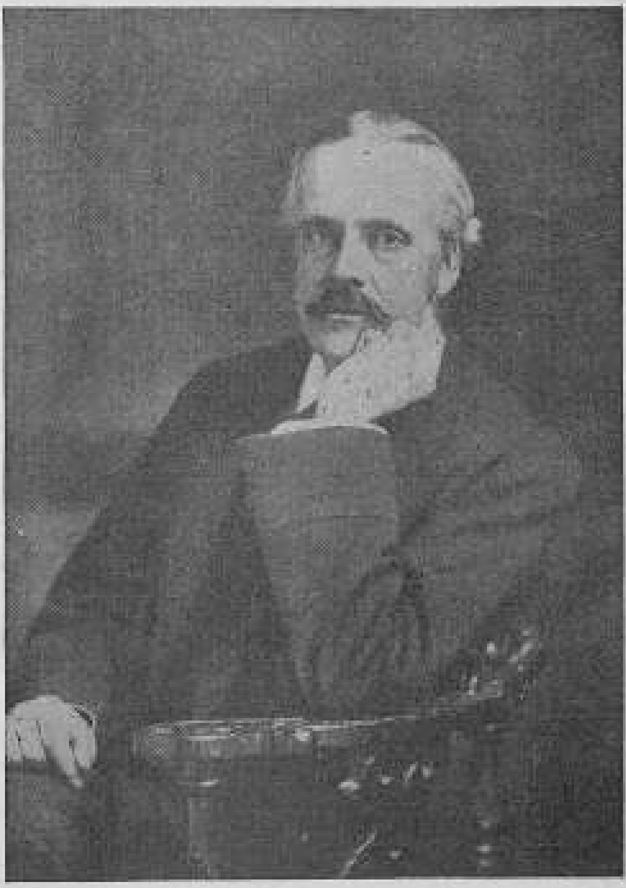
Coming back to India, I believe that the expressions of loyalty to the Empire made in England as in India are sincere as far as present feeling goes, but I hope the British statesmen and the British people will not construe them as representing an absolute condition of the Indian mind. In the near past we have had ample evidence of the strong feelings of the Muhamadans of India, and it is doubtful what their sentiments would be if the Sultan of Turkey were to enter the arena as an Ally of Germany. Similarly, the offers by Native Chiefs do not mean very much. Most of them, as we know, are entirely in the hands of their British Residents, and are actuated by motives not necessarily identical with whole-hearted loyalty to the British. As regards the Hindus, we must not forget that there is still a party of violence among the Indian Nationalists and that even the Indian National Congress had to express itself pretty strongly about the Indian grievances against the British Government. The "Komagata Maru" incident must be still fresh in their memories. Expressions of loyalty from India must, therefore, be taken with a pinch of salt—not that one under-rates their importance, nor doubt their sincerity as against other European Powers with whom we are engaged in war, but just to remind the British public that there is an Indian problem which must imperatively be considered when, after the war is over, we sit down to recast the political relations of the world, and to readjust the political relations of the different races and nationalities of the world. Nay, I go a step further, and say that it would be a fine stroke of policy if the authorities were at this moment to do something to strike the imagination of the people in India, and to convince them beyond a shadow of doubt that the British value their loyalty and really respect their desire to be citizens of the Empire.

"A NEVER-HEALING SORE."

Now the best and the most effective way to win the genuine and permanent loyalty of India would be to remove the galling bound that remind her sons every moment of their lives that they are the subjects of an alien Government, and that they have no status in the Empire to which they are expected to be loyal. What we have to do is, by one bold stroke, to convert the loyalty of impotence or of fear into the loyalty of heart. There is no time to raise controversial issues. But no one can doubt that an enforced disarming of a population is a vivid and unforgotten sign of its being a subject people. It is a never-healing sore. There can be no justification for such a measure except on the ground of self-defence. If so, it should not be beyond that. In Asia, in particular, the fact of legal ineligibility to bear arms carries with it such a sense of humiliation, helplessness, and self-contempt, that before it all other blessings dwindle into insignificance. In moments of danger or of attack, in a crisis like the present, to feel that one is not legally permitted to defend oneself, one's hearth and home, one's people, that one is not allowed to fight for the King or for the Flag; that one has been by policemen forcibly deprived of the means of defending the honour of one's family and one's country, makes one extremely miserable, and completely drowns the sense of other benefits received at the hands of those who have created this state of legaly inflicted helplessness. Let Englishmen put themselves in the position of Indians, and then judge how they would feel under similar circumstances. Moreover, the disarming of a population is the most conclusive evidence that the disarming Power realises that it cannot trust the people, and has no faith in their loyalty.

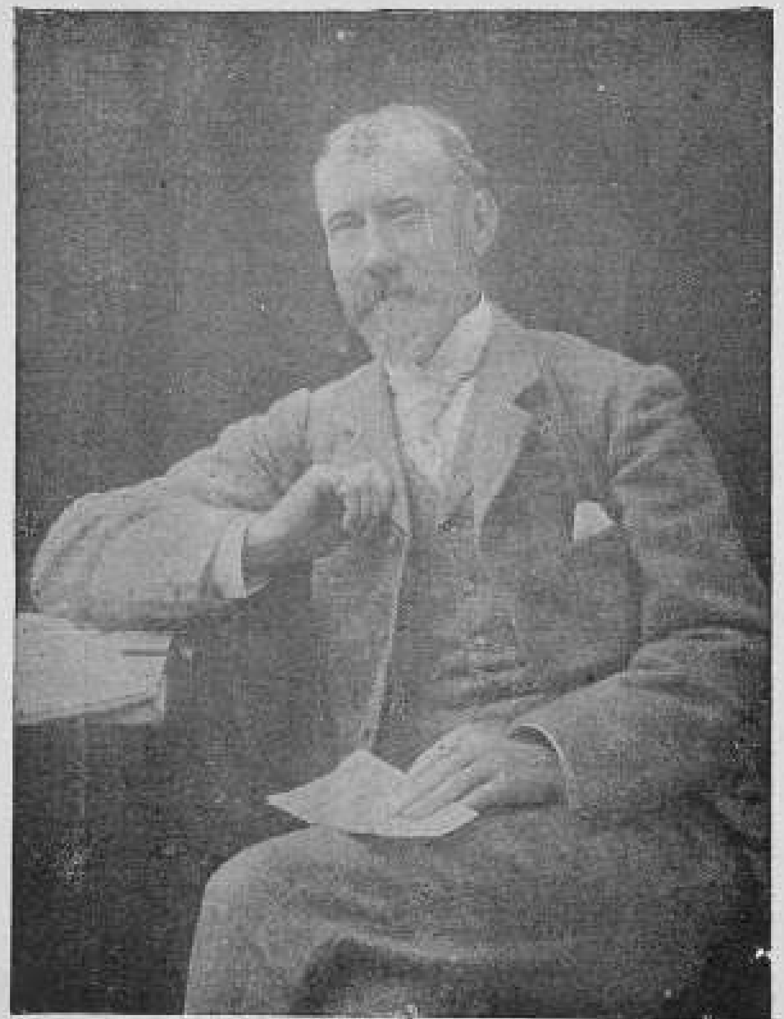
PARTIAL REPEALMENT OF THE ARMS ACT.

The first thing, then, is to remove this stigma. It may not be practical politics to repeal the Arms Act at once, but there ought now to be no difficulty in beginning by exempting men of position and education from the operation of the Act, or by making the issue to them of licences to bear arms a matter of course. Such a declaration would have a thrilling effect, and would raise



THE RT. HON. A. J. BALFOUR.
Who has joined the new Cabinet as First Lord of the Admiralty.

P. 123.]



W. Wedderburn.

a wave of loyalty which no amount of seditious propaganda could counteract. Dacoits, robbers, thieves, and those who want to commit murder, can get arms even now. They are, it is true, obtained with difficulty, but for such people price is no consideration, nor have they any moral scruples against stealing arms whenever they need them. Let the British Government allow arms to good and honest citizens, and it will find a great load taken off its shoulders. Bombs will disappear, and with them, we may hope, sedition and trials for sedition. Any kind of European or American in India, even Germans and Austrians and Mexicans and Russians, can carry arms without licence, but the wealthiest Indian, and the most scholarly, may not do so. If the latter be disposed to evil, he can buy a weapon at an enormous price from some greedy European, or he can steal it; but if he wants it for the purpose of defending himself and his family, he cannot get it honestly. Under such circumstances, what does Flag mean to him? how can he possibly be enthusiastic in the loyalty to a Government which has reduced him to the level of a helpless beast? The devotion of the helpless people, of dummies, of men who themselves request to be looked after and protected by British bayonets in times of danger.

FREE EDUCATION AND VOLUNTEERING.

The next thing which would evoke a genuine feeling of loyalty in India would be a declaration to establish as rapidly as practicable, universal free and compulsory primary education at the cost of the State. Let it be no longer delayed by false reasons and false fears.

A third point, necessarily connected with the first, would be to allow Indians to enlist as Volunteers both in England and in India. In England there is no restriction upon the carrying of arms, and the only difficulty is the possible prejudice of the English people against having coloured men as comrades. This should not be insurmountable. But there is another way out of any such difficulty, and that is to let the Indians to form themselves into entirely separate Volunteer Corps under the control and command of British officers.

For the present these three suggestions will suffice. There are others that will occur to the authorities themselves. My object is to show the supreme importance and the need of h
an olive branch
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dear to Englan

INDIA'S OPPORTUNITY

BY

SIR WILLIAM WEDDERBURN.*

JUST twenty years ago, in the spring of 1894, a great European war, such as now rages, seemed to be impending and Allan Hume, the "Father of the Indian National Congress" in bidding farewell to India addressed stirring words of exhortations to a great public meeting assembled in his honour at Bombay. If unhappily such a war broke out, and England was involved, he adjured the Indian people to give united and ungrudging support to the British people, "who, with all their defects, were a noble nation, that has ever sounded the advance to all the listening peoples of the world along the paths of freedom—the nation to which you owe most of what you now most highly prize." Indians should, he said, "rally as one man to the side on those little Isles which have been justly designated Freedom's last stronghold—Freedom's keep! Yes, in the nobler sense of the words, a great war will be India's opportunity—opportunity for proving that if in period of peace she clamours—at times somewhat angrily—for equal civil rights, in the hour of war she is ever ready and anxious to accept equal military risks."

The appeal, instinct with the speaker's prophetic fervour, went straight to the hearts of the people, and the spirit thus evoked—the spirit which from the first has animated the Indian National Congress—manifests itself in the noble enthusiasm now inspiring a united India.

The tremendous crisis of to-day is indeed India's opportunity, but let no one forget that it is also England's opportunity. The writer of the article on "India and the War" in your last issue has rightfully signed himself, "One who knows India," and British statesmen will do well to ponder his analysis of the Indian situation, and be guided by his timely advice. The Indian expressions of loyalty to the Empire are sincere, but he warned the authorities that the country is very far from being satisfied with its political conditions. Indians desire to maintain the British connection, but it is on the condition that the connection should be in accordance with royal and parliamentary pledges; that it should be a fair partnership, beneficial to both parties; that it
otherhood, not subjection and

a Statesman, London.

As your correspondent has well shown, now is the psychic moment for a bold act of statesmanship, something that will show genuine sympathy and confidence. The disarming of the population, the rejection of Indians as volunteers, the withholding of commissions in the Army from Indians (the cadet corps created by Lord Curzon exists unfortunately only for ornamental purposes), the harsh Press laws and laws against public meetings,—the refusal to grant free and compulsory primary education—all such galling race-restrictions are evidence of official distrust, of disbelief in the loyalty of the masses. What is now wanted is a declaration by the highest authority of whole-hearted trust in the Indian people, and this declaration in words must be accompanied by corresponding deeds, by sweeping away the whole fabric of distrust and repression, which is alien to British sentiment and destructive of good will among all classes of the Indian people.

THREE MEASURES OF REFORM.

No doubt, in some of these matters, such as primary education and Press laws, it may not be possible to take immediate action just now, and we may have to wait till the close of the war before the existing sense of wrong in the Indian mind is removed. But in regard to others, the very crisis which confronts us affords the most suitable opportunity for taking generous action. In particular I strongly urge the immediate adoption of the following three measures:—

(1) A modification of the Arms Act. As your correspondent says, "It may not be practical politics to repeal the Arms Act at once, but there ought now to be no difficulty in beginning by exempting men of position and education from the operation of the Act, or by making the issue to them of licenses to bear arms a matter of course." At any rate, the very least that ought to be done at once is to remove the element of racial discrimination from present arrangements by making licenses equally necessary in the case of both Europeans and Indians, and granting them to Indians of education and position in the same liberal spirit in which they will be granted to Europeans.

(2) The formation of Indian volunteer corps. The Government have very wisely decided to bring not only European troops but also Indian troops from India to reinforce the Expedition[illegible] Force, and it is possible that [illegible] regular army in India may h[illegible] The work of Indian defence [illegible] Imperial Service troops of [illegible] few thousand European volunteers and a few thousand Indian reservists. To my mind it will now be an act of the highest statesmanship to seize the opportunity to enrol carefully selected Indians volunteers to join in the defence of their own hearths and homes and thus remove from them what is at once a grievous disability and a great stigma.

(3) The grant of commissions to Indians in the Army. This important and far-reaching measure, strongly supported for many years by many of the highest civil and military authorities in India, has been very near adoption more than once during the last ten years. The late Lord Minto publicly stated a short time before his lamented death that this was a reform on which he had set his heart, and he had hoped to see it carried through during his Viceroyalty, but that at the last moment some obstacle here at home prevailed, his recommendations came to be pigeon-holes. I have also heard on excellent authority that Lord Kitchener and Sir O'Moore Creagh, chiefs of the army in India during the last twelve years were both strongly in favour of this reform, and there was a general expectation in India that the historic visit of the present King and Queen would be signalised among other things, by the announcement at the Delhi Durbar of this long awaited mark of royal confidence in Indian loyalty. Now that Indian troops will be fighting in Europe side by side with English troops against the common enemy of the Empire, this measure of bare justice to the people of India ought no longer to be denied or delayed.

ROYAL CLEMENCY FOR POLITICALS.

A smaller matter—still one which will have been an excellent effect on public feeling in India —is the immediate and unconditional release of all political prisoners. In this country Royal clemency has been extended to political offenders in connection with labour strikes and Suffragist agitation and the opportunity should be taken to extend similar clemency to political offenders in India whose offences are unconnected with violence or moral delinquency.

Happily His Majesty the King Emperor knows how to reach the hearts of the people, and his constitutional advisers should l[illegible] no time in [illegible] to issue such a gracious message to [illegible] people of India. It will carry [illegible] its bosom.

THE WAR AND INDIA'S RULING CHIEFS

, THE MAHARAJA OF KASHMIR.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF TRAVANCORE.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF JAIPUR.

H. H. TH

H. H. THE RAJA OF DHAR.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA SAHEB ... AGAR.

H. H. THE NAWAB OF RAMPUR.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF MOURBHUNG

H. H. THE NAWAB OF TONK.

H. H. THE RAO OF CUTCH.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BHUTAN.

H. H. THE RAJA OF DEWAS.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF DHURBUNGA.

H. H. THE RAJA OF NABHA

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF JHALAWAR.

H. H. THE MAHARAJAH OF KAPURTHALA.

H. H. THE THAKUR SAHEB OF RAJKOT.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BENARES.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BHARTPUR.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF SONEPUR.

H. H. THE JAM OF NAWANAGAR.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF RATLAM.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF PANNA.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF KOLHAPUR.

India as a Recruiting Ground.*

WHEN Lord Crewe made in the House of Lords the most welcome announcement of the utilisation of Indian troops in the war, he described the Indian recruiting field as "not an inexhaustible reservoir." He may be right from the point of view that, for immediate purposes, only a few thousand could be indented upon, that is to say from the standing Indian army whose present dimensions are limited. But there is another side to the question. India is with the exception of China the most thickly populated country in the world, and therefore the most fruitful ground for recruitment. Taking one able-bodied recruit for every hundred persons of the population, India could spare three million souls to be enrolled as soldiers, and, if means could be found by which to make them efficient fighting material, Lord Crewe's recruiting ground would at once assume the form of an inexhaustible reservoir. India has tasted the peace and calm of quiet days under the might of the British Raj. A hundred years of peace have laid to sleep the old military spirit of the native. But there is the blood of the old civilisation still existing, as Lord Crewe rightly said—a civilisation which counted the gift of military spirit as necessary to national existence. An appeal can be made to that spirit and once that spirit is roused the whole country will rise to the sense of its responsibility.

The question may be raised that, although the numbers may be there, the requisite quality is what is essential at the present moment. It must at once be conceded that the soldier who has to confront the up-to-date German opponent must be a well-trained and most thoroughly equipped man. Expert opinion puts down six months' training, as sufficient for this purpose, but if recruitment first begins amongst the military tribes of Baluchistan, the Punjab and the Northern Frontier and parts of the Maratha country, this time of training could be curtailed with advantage. If a start is made at once, we may in six months' time be able to send to Europe, month by month, a hundred-thousand men.

RESOURCES OF THE COMBATANTS COMPARED.

This war will be decided more by endurance than by strength. The determination of the participators in the war seems to be dogged and of an unyielding character. The Germans are in great strength to-day, but whether that strength will last long is the question. The policy of the Allies seems to be to wear out the enemy rather than to crush him—which it is not in their power to do to-day. That party will be able to wear out the other which has the larger armies to draw upon and which has the money wherewithal to maintain them. Germany has the men ready to-day. The whole of its population has been armed and it has for all practical purposes money enough for its present needs. But it is after all a limited field. Germany cannot recruit beyond its own country and it cannot borrow money from anywhere else. So that every soldier killed is a loss which cannot be made good and every sovereign spent away is a loss that cannot be replaced.

The Allies on the other hand, have immense resources. England can draw upon the Colonies both for money and men, the teeming millions of India could supply men for years without number and as to war loans India would beat any Colony. France has the Algerian forces to call upon and Russia has nearly the half of Asia which she can call her own. With these resources at their command the Allies can go on with the war for years regardless of the present temporary advantages to the enemy. As to pecuniary help, if need be, England and France can borrow in the markets of America so that while Germany and Austria are tied down within their own limits as regards men and money, the Allies have the widest field open to them. Add to this the advantage of the open trade-routes to their countries. The mighty fleet of England has been the cause of keeping the world's trade-routes clear of the enemies, whose fleets are bottled up in the Kiel Canal and the Adriatic, so that while the enemy will find itself in the long run hard pressed for food supply for its country the Allies will continue to be well supplied with all the necessaries of life. Out of the consideration of all these items only one conclusion can emerge, *viz.*, the eventual defeat of Germany due to the wearing out process of the campaign.

THE CONTINUAL FLOW OF MEN.

But this wearing out process requires the continual flow of men to the front, and this flow can be possible only if the most populated portion of the Empire continues to supply this want. The numerical strength of India is undoubted. Its efficiency is no doubt lacking, but it is for the master to see that it is supplied. If India is to have the pride of belonging to the Empire, let it

* "An eminent Indian publicist" in The *Times of India*, Bombay.

also have the pride of having to bear its responsibility. The time has come when every limb of the Empire must exert itself for the welfare of the whole body Imperial. Unuseable India is a burden—equal to its vastness—on the Empire, and it cannot be used at this critical juncture; its existence as a jewel in the King's Crown is not apparent. If India boasts of being an important part of the great British Empire let it prove it by its service to its King to-day. Let the Government ask and see how it responds.

England has been recruiting fast, the Colonies are also enrolling men. India is only sending forward its regulars. No provision has yet been made for recruitment. I would suggest a wholesale recruitment, with the severest test in fitness and a six months' full training before going to the front. At the end of the first six months I would not be surprised if India could send at least a hundred thousand soldiers to France every month for at least two years. It would not be too much to suggest that if Germany had known that India was one of England's recruiting grounds she would never have thought of launching into this war.

THE DETERMINING FACTOR.

Next to the unpreparedness of France, England's restricted capacity in the matter of sending expeditionary forces had no small influence in this sudden determining of Germany to go to war. But in war calculations often go wrong and let us to-day prove it to the hilt to Germany that she erred ignominiously in her calculations. But there is another and more cogent reason why I plead for this course. This war, even after it ends in the defeat of Germany and Austria, will leave some lessons to history. Among the successes will appear drawbacks on which enemies in the future might build their hopes of revenge or the ambitious found their calculations for a successful realisation of their plans.

India's incapacity for military service must stand in history as the greatest weakness of the Empire. In the proportion of India's share in this war will be calculated England's strength in the future adjustment of the world. England has up to now been considered a great factor in the determining of any warlike demonstrations by any country. That has been due to the glamour that has surrounded the name of England for military prowess. That prowess has now been put to the test by the daring step which Germany has taken. For all future purposes now, the name of England can strike terror only in proportion to its success in this war. This success should not be the common success of the Allies (made possible by the combined strength of the Allies) but the individual contribution of England towards this success. For England to be the commanding factor, it should hold a commanding position due to its military strength and not to its power of diplomacy only. This military preponderance would be possible only if it could claim the best fighting material in inexaustible quantities. This is possible only if the vast population of India is given military training. Out of the results of this war will stand out boldly, the facts as to which nation has the greatest power of endurance, and that nation will stand the test best which can afford to lose the greatest number of its soldiers for a comparatively longer period than its enemy. England must once for all decide whether it is going to make a bid for that power of endurance or not. It is by this determination of hers that she will acquire her right place in history as a power. In the midst of success England with its present day limited resources will only rank as a victor dependent on the succour of others. Her future place in the Councils of the world will be secondary. Her hitherto impregnable position will be considered vulnerable, and in direct proportion to this feeling about her position will be the state of her trade and therefore her prosperity. England joined in a continental war a hundred years ago and came out successful by her efforts in the field of Waterloo so completely that she has remained the Queen of Europe for all these years. Here is another chance given to her. Unless she can claim to have mainly contributed to the success of the issue she must retire to a secondary position, and this position going down in history will decide many a war in which England will have to take part. England to-day has not only to set an example to Germany and Austria but also to many other powers, for history has taught us that the morals of mortals are so depraved that the friends of one generation become the enemies of another and the only way of keeping friends from turning into enemies is to stagger them by the display of our strength as a friend. England has got not only to win by the side of her friends but has to show to Russia and Japan that, amongst the friends of France, England was the strongest. It is for that reason I have advocated the cause of the useful India, not for the sake of India alone but for the sake of the Empire itself.

LORD MORLEY OF BLACKBURN.
Who has resigned the Cabinet since the War.

LORD CREWE.
The Late Secretary of State for India.

THE RT. HON. AUSTIN CHAMBERLAIN
Present Secretary of State for India.

ACTION NOT CAUTIOUS THOUGHT.

Some may wonder as to how these millions of men can be profitably transported to France. Means could be found for a permanent arrangement of this nature, but this is not the time to suggest those ways and means. So long as we can hit upon some workable scheme for our present needs the consideration of permanent measures may be left over for the present. Japan has been with us in this war. She has already declared war against Germany, and has a tremendous fleet which is practically lying idle. Her fleet and her merchant-ships can be conveniently used as transports. She can take Indian troops to the coast of France or to Port Said whence they could be transhipped into other ships as the French fleet has now cleared the Mediterranean. While I make these suggestions, I seem to hear some demurrings of a political nature which may seem to have shut my eyes, but which all the while are in the perspective of my thoughts. There are objections, I admit, but there are remedies also, which could, adequately meet those objections, and it is not impossible to carve out a scheme which, while guaranteeing the safety of the Indian Empire, would put the might of England on a permanent basis. To-day, however, the need is for prompt action and the future must merge into the present. "Train your men and send them on to the front," is the call to-day. Action, not cautious thought, must guide us to-day. Trust and valour go together. England has both. Let it use them and gain victory.

EMPLOYMENT OF INDIAN TROOPS

Lord Crewe.*

IT has been deeply impressed upon us by what we have heard from India that the wonderful wave of enthusiasm and loyalty now passing over that country is, to a great extent, based upon the desire of the Indian people that Indian soldiers should stand side by side with their comrades of the British Army in repelling the invasion of our friends' territory and the attack made upon Belgium. It is well-known in India that the African troops of the French Army which have been assisting the troops in France are of native origin, and I feel satisfied that it would be a disappointment to our loyal Indian fellow subjects, all the more on that account if they found themselves debarred for any reason from taking part in the campaign on the Continent of Europe. We shall find our Army there reinforced by soldiers, high souled men of first rate training and representing an ancient civilisation and we feel certain that if they are called upon they will give the best possible account of themselves side by side with our British troops encountering the enemy. I venture to think that this keen desire of our Indian fellow subjects so to co-operate with us is not less gratifying than the same desire which has been shown by the various self governing Dominions, some of whose soldiers in due course will also be found fighting side by side with British troops and Indian troops in this war.

Of course we all know that India does not possess an inexhaustible reservoir of troops, and that the defence of India must be the primary consideration not merely to India itself, but also to us. But I am able to say that so far as external aggression is concerned—of which I hope and believe there is no prospect—our Indian frontiers will be held fully and adequately secured, in spite of these heavy drafts on the Indian Army. As regards any risk of internal trouble in India, against which in ordinary times, of course, our combined British and Indian Forces have to secure us. I believe that at this moment the general enthusiasm which has been awakened by our resistance to the unprovoked attack which has been made upon our Allies is such as to render anything of that sort altogether impossible. (Hear, hear.) That enthusiasm has pervaded all classes and races in India; it has found vent in many different ways—in some cases by gifts of great liberality for the service of the troops in the field. I was told only yesterday by the Viceroy that one of the principal Indian Princes had sent him some Rs. 50 lakhs, or between £300,000 and £400,000, for the use of the troops in the field, and there have been a number of offers of the same kind. I feel confident, therefore, that the action we have taken will meet with the most enthusiastic reception in India, and I believe it will be approved by Your Lordships' House and by the nation generally. (Cheers.)

* In the House of Lords, August 28.

Mr. William Archer.*

The races of India are potentially among the noblest in the world. In my opinion (for even at such a moment I am not going to flatter them) they have suffered from grave climatic, historic, and spiritual misfortunes. Their claim to age-old "civilisation" I hold to be only verbally justified. But their racial material is superb; and in placing them shoulder to shoulder with ourselves in the fight against world-tyranny, we implicitly admit their high qualities and their right to share in the great future of which the seeds, we confidently believe, are even now being sown in tribulation and anguish.

The rallying of the Indian Army to the flag is a practical admission that, whatever our stupidities here and our arrogances there, we have, for the past century at least, meant well and done well by India. This admission is, I think, mere justice; but it requires some generosity to make it; and it must now be our part to show that we appreciate that generosity. I am no India-worshipper; I think the European idealisers of India do her a more than doubtful service. She has much to learn and very much to unlearn before she is fit to take an equal place in the fellowship of the nations. This is no time, even if I had the space, for criticisms—for enlarging on social abuses and religious impediments to progress. The very fact of her eager participation in this War of World Ideals shows that she is already well out of the slough of millennial stagnation. It now rests with us to help her forward, honestly, diligently, and with deliberate, intelligent purpose, on the path which shall lead her out of tutelage, and up to the eminent place to which her innate capacities entitle her in the economy of the Empire and of the world.

Mr. S. M. Mitra.†

Will you allow a Hindu subject of England to invite the attention of the British nation to the Indian Native Army? Lord Roberts, in his "Forty-one Years in India"; Vol. II, p. 444, thus referred to the soldierlike qualities of the native regiments: 'I have no doubt whatever of the fighting powers of our best Indian troops; I have a thorough belief in, and admiration for, Gurkhas, Sikhs, Dogras, Rajputs, Jats, and selected Mahomedans; I thoroughly appreciate their soldierly qualities; brigaded with British troops, I would be proud to lead them against any European enemy'.

* In the *Daily News and Leader*.
† In the *Morning Post*.

Mr. Bhupendra Nath Basu.*

Representatives of an ancient civilisation and possessed of an old-world chivalry and valour, the Indian soldiers will not be unworthy of the task to which they are being called. For the first time they will stand side by side with their British comrades against a common European enemy; for the first time the Indian people will realise that they are trusted in the hour of danger; it is no time for looking back, but for the first time we feel that we are truly the equal subjects of the King. The noble Marquis has said that sufficient safeguards have been provided against external or internal danger in India. There is no fear of either.

Lord Curzon.†

It would be an act of folly to refrain from using troops which were not inferior to but in some respects the most efficient of the whole Army. The martial spirit in India was traditional and famous, and why when we wanted every man we could get, should we refrain from employing them, because the sun happened to have looked upon them and made them dark? They would not fire on the Red Cross-badge; they would not murder innocent woman and children; they would not bombard Christian cathedrals even if to them they were the fanes of an alien faith. The East was sending out a civilised soldiery to save Europe from the modern Huns.

Sir John Hewett.‡

Lord Crewe's announcement that Indian soldiers are to fight side by side with our British forces in repelling the invasion of France and the attack on Belgium has sent a thrill of joy through many who had begun to fear that the gallant troops would not be given this opportunity. Great Britain need have no fear that they will not justify this trust to the full. Their employment in this supreme struggle side by side with the best troops that the world knows will do more to make our rule in India popular than any other step that the Government could take. During this war India will remain as peaceful as England, and at least 100,000 Indian Regulars could be brought to Europe without imperilling the quiet either of the border or of the interior of the country.

* In the *Westminster Gazette*.
† Speech at Hull on September 7.
‡ In the *Times*.

H. H. THE GAEKWAR OF BARODA.

H. H. THE MAHARAJAH OF PATIALA.

H. H. THE MAHARAJAH OF HOLKAR.

H. H. THE MAHARAJAH OF ALWAR

INDIA ON ACTIVE SERVICE IN EUROPE.

THE ARMIES OF THE POWERS.

THE BRITISH ARMY.

The Military forces of the British Empire consist of:—

A. The forces in the United Kingdom and its dependencies, which are directly under the control of the British War Office.

B. The British Army in India which is practically controlled by the War Office, and the Indian Army under the control of the Government of India.

C. The forces of the Dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa which are controlled and paid for by the respective governments of those Dominions.

A. THE BRITISH ARMY.

The British Army since 1907 consists of (1) the Regular Army, (2) the Territorial Force, and (3) certain other miscellaneous forces.

I. THE REGULAR ARMY.

The regular Army consists of (1) troops permanently embodied, and (2) the "Army reserve." About half the total strength of the British regular Army is always abroad, in India and the Colonies. The engagements in the Regular Army, which are voluntary, are for a period of 12 years, with the possibility of extension to 21 years for pension. In the infantry and in the artillery, service in the ranks *i. e.* "colour service" is for 6, 7 or 9 years, with 6, 5 or 3 years in the "Army reserve." There are also engagements for three years for the reserve itself. In the cavalry, service is for 8 years, and 4 years in the reserve.

Apart from the "Army reserve" (consisting of those who have finished their terms of service in the regular Army), there is also a "special reserve." This was created by the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act of 1907 which converted the old Militia into the "special reserve." The Battalions of the Militia became the reserve Battalions, the Militia artillery became the reserve artillery, and the Militia engineer Battalions became the reserve "seige and railway" companies. All the men of these reserve units whether enlisted originally as militiamen or directly recruited are now enlisted as "special reservists" of the Regular Army. That is, they are partially trained in time of peace, and are available for being transferred to the Regular Army in time of war as required. The period of initial training for these "special reservists" is six months for all arms, followed by a training of 15 days every year, with additional 6 days for musketry every year for the infantry.

The fighting forces of the British Army are (1) Infantry, (2) the Artillery, and (3) the Cavalry. The general division of the Infantry is into Battalions, Regiments, Brigades and Divisions. That of the Cavalry is into squadrons, regiments, brigades and divisions.

The INFANTRY is first of all organised into *Battalions*. The peace strength of a Battalion in the United Kingdom is 801 all ranks. In the Colonies it is 932. In India the Battalions are on a war footing of 1033 each. Battalions are grouped into *regiments*. A regiment consists usually of 2 Battalions but sometimes of 4, (2 abroad and 2 in the United Kingdom of the same regiment). Regiments are grouped into *brigades*, each brigade consisting of four battalions or two regiments. Brigades, with certain additions, are grouped into *divisions*, a division being the highest unit of organisation in the British Army. An infantry division consists of three brigades (*i.e.* 12 Battalions), the divisional artillery of 76 guns, two companies mounted infantry, and two companies engineers. The total strength of the combatants of a division comes to about 16,000 rank and file.

The ARTILLERY is organised in *brigades* each containing 3 *batteries*. The *Horse Artillery* and the *Howitzer batteries* are orgnised in divisions of 2 batteries each. Every battery has *six guns* in war.

The CAVALRY is at first organised into *squadrons*. Three field squadrons, and one depot squadron are organised into *regiments*. Three such regiments (or 9 field squadrons and 3 depot squadrons) are organised into *brigades*. Four such brigades with horse artillery form a *division*. The total strength of the combatants of a cavalry division comes to about 6,000 rank and file.— What they call a "*mounted brigade*" consists of one cavalry regiment, two mounted infantry battalions, and a horse battery of six guns.

The *Garrison Artillery* and the *Engineers* are not permanently organised into anything beyond the "company" unit, which is the smallest unit.

The military wing of the *Royal Flying Corps* consists of 112 officers and 893 men.

The strength and distribution of the British army, regular and reserve, rank and file, was in 1912 as follows:—

	Infantry.	Cavalry.	Artillery.	Engineers.	Technical and Departmental.	Colonial Troops.	Indian Troops on Imperial Service.	Total.
United Kingdom ...	71,479	12,475	27,002	6,775	11,772	...	...	129,503
India ...	56,227	5,824	15,727	370	572	...	323	78,093
Mediterranean ...	6,795		3,013	902	644	450	...	11,804
Egypt and Cyprus ...	4,830	621	428	179	334	...	198	6,590
Ceylon and Strait Settlements ...	922	...	489	179	134	119	1,713	3,556
China ...	1,828	...	756	246	224	418	2,599	6,071
South Africa ...	5,799	2,368	1,544	584	1,136	...	...	11,431
West Africa ...	...	...	248	77	61	2,143	...	2,529
On Passage etc. ...	2,726	...	578	336	245	847	...	4,732
Other Stations ...	22,900	2,989	7,056	2,503	2,778	...	4,510	46,713
Grand totals ...	149,656	21,228	49,785	9,648	15,122	3,977	4,893	254,300
Army Reserve ...	84,425	10,744	25,327	5,555	12,335	145	...	138,531
Special Reserve ...	51,309	883	7,060	1,247	2,087	...	...	62,586

THE EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.

In a European War, however, troops would have to be despatched and employed at such short notice that a "Home Expeditionary Force" was arranged some years ago. A force of "regulars" in the United Kingdom was organised to form and maintain in the event of war an expeditionary field army consisting of six divisions, one cavalry division, and two mounted brigades (that is, 73 battalions, 43 squadrons, 26 companies mounted infantry, and 84 batteries) with their administrative and line of communications. A calculation made from the "War Establishments" tables for 1912 gave the following figures as requisite for an "expeditionary force," including a "first re-inforcement" to replace casualties:—

Arm.	Officers.	Other Ranks.
Staff and miscellaneous.	517	1,781
Cavalry ..	378	8,966
Artillery ..	726	27,794
Engineers and Signal Service ..	196	6,311
Infantry (incl. mounted Infantry.) ..	2,461	88,561
Army Service Corps, R. A. Medical Corps, etc. ..	910	24,730
Total ..	5,188	158,143

II. THE TERRITORIAL ARMY.

By the Act of 1907 the Volunteers and the Imperial Yeomanry were consolidated as the Territorial Force. The old volunteers and the yeomanry formed the infantry and cavalry of the new Territorial Army, which also comprised a proportionate strength of artillery. Recruitment for the Territorial Army is entirely voluntary, but the conditions are a little more onerous than they were before, those joining the force are not simply enrolled as the old volunteers were, but are attested and enlisted. The age of enlistment is from 27 to 35, and the period of engagement is for four years. There is option of re-engagement for another like period. But no territorial can remain in the force after the age of 40. Discharge from the force can be obtained by giving three month's notice and paying a fine of £5. The training of the territorials is on "voluntary lines." There is no period of continuous training, but instead there is an annual training in camp for a maximum of 15 days and a minimum of 8. Separation allowance is granted to all married privates who are in camp for 15 days. Other drills and rifle practice are carried out in the men's own time. There is a fine of £5 or less for absence from training or failure to put in the necessary number of drills.

The Territorial Army is organised in 14 divisions and 14 cavalry brigades on lines similar to the Regular Army. All the higher units have their own field-artillery, garrison-artillery, mountain-artillery, horse-batteries, ammunition-columns, engineers, cyclists, medical and such other subsidiary services. All the officers of the territorials, except the divisional officers and some of the staff officers, are non-professional, *i.e.*, non-

military men. The officers are trained in the Officer's Training Corps which is supplied by the colleges, public schools and universities. When called out for active service the territorials receive pay just as the regulars and on the same scale. The General Officers Commanding are responsible to the War Office (*i.e.*, to the Army Council) for the training of the force. But the whole administration and management of the Territorial Army is entrusted to local "County Associations" which undertake to raise, equip and maintain the force, the funds being provided by the War Office. The territorial army is liable to serve only for Home defence in time of war. But territorials are now allowed to volunteer for service abroad. But before being sent on active service abroad they are trained for six months after war breaks out. The strength of the territorial army, which is the same in peace and war, was in 1913 as follows:—

Arm.	Permanent Staff, All Ranks.	Territorial,		Total.
		Officers	Others.	
Yeomanry ...	328	1,180	22,915	24,423
Horse and Field Artillery ...	450	988	28,685	30,123
Garrison Artillery ...	135	394	8,955	9,484
Engineers ...	173	524	12,408	13,105
Infantry & Cyclists...	1,259	4,855	162,462	168,576
Departmental troops	194	1,533	19,379	21,106
Grand total ...	2,539	9,480	254,801	266,820

III. Miscellaneous Forces.

Apart from the Territorial Force there are certain other forces, though of less importance. One of the more important ones of those is the *Officer's Training Corps* which was founded in 1909. Its senior Division includes contingents from 21 universities and colleges, and its junior Division is furnished by 159 public schools. The primary function of the Corps is to train young officers for the "Special reserve" and the Territorial Force. It also drills and trains students and collegians who form the Corps. The whole training is directly supervised by the general staff, and is on a higher level than that obtained in the former University Volunteer Corps and th School Cadet Corps.

Besides the Territorial Force there is a *Territorial Reserve*, more or less a "first re-inforcement," a convenient force for those who have had to give up regimental duty but still wish to remain on the war strength.

There is also a *National Reserve*, which is a register of trained officers and men who are no longer liable to serve in any of the forces of the Crown, but are ready to come in time of emergency.

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The strength and distribution of the British army, regular and reserve, rank and file, was in 1912 as follows:—

—	Infantry.	Cavalry.	Artillery.	Engineers.	Technical and Departmental.	Colonial Troops.	Indian Troops on Imperial Service.	Total.
United Kingdom ...	71,479	12,475	37,002	6,770	11,772	...	...	129,863
India ...	55,227	5,824	10,727	370	572	...	323	78,083
Mediterranean ...	6,736	...	3,013	902	644	450	...	11,804
Egypt and Cyprus ...	4,830	621	438	179	334	...	198	6,300
Ceylon and Strait Settlements ...	922	...	480	170	134	119	1,713	3,336
China ...	1,828	...	756	246	224	418	2,060	8,071
South Africa ...	5,799	2,308	1,344	484	1,138	...	...	11,431
West Africa ...	...	...	248	77	61	2,143	...	2,329
On Passage etc. ...	2,726	...	578	338	245	847	...	4,782
Other Stations ...	22,900	2,080	7,056	2,008	2,778	...	4,810	46,713
Grand totals ...	149,656	21,228	49,785	9,648	15,122	3,977	4,880	254,380
Army Reserve ...	84,425	10,744	25,327	5,556	12,335	145	...	138,531
Special Reserve ...	51,300	883	7,060	1,247	2,067	...	...	62,588

THE EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.

In a European War, however, troops would have to be despatched and employed at such short notice that a "Home Expeditionary Force" was arranged some years ago. A force of "regulars" in the United Kingdom was organised to form and maintain in the event of war an expeditionary field army consisting of six divisions, one cavalry division, and two mounted brigades (that is, 73 battalions, 43 squadrons, 26 companies mounted infantry, and 84 batteries) with their administrative and line of communications. A calculation made from the "War Establishments" tables for 1912 gave the following figures as requisite for an "expeditionary force," including a "first reinforcement" to replace casualties:—

Arm.	Officers.	Other Ranks.
Staff and miscellaneous.	517	1,781
Cavalry ..	378	8,966
Artillery ...	726	27,794
Engineers and Signal Service ..	196	6,311
Infantry (incl. mounted Infantry.) ..	2,461	88,561
Army Service Corps, R. A. Medical Corps, etc. ..	910	24,730
Total ..	5,188	158,143

II. THE TERRITORIAL ARMY.

By the Act of 1907 the Volunteers and the Imperial Yeomanry were consolidated as the Territorial Force. The old volunteers and the yeomanry formed the infantry and cavalry of the new Territorial Army, which also comprised a proportionate strength of artillery. Recruitment for the Territorial Army is entirely voluntary, but the conditions are a little more onerous than they were before, those joining the force are not simply enrolled as the old volunteers were, but are attested and enlisted. The age of enlistment is from 27 to 35, and the period of engagement is for four years. There is option of re-engagement for another like period. But no territorial can remain in the force after the age of 40. Discharge from the force can be obtained by giving three month's notice and paying a fine of £5. The training of the territorials is on "voluntary lines." There is no period of continuous training, but instead there is an annual training in camp for a maximum of 15 days and a minimum of 8. Separation allowance is granted to all married privates who are in camp for 15 days. Other drills and rifle practice are carried out in the men's own time. There is a fine of £5 or less for absence from training or failure to put in the necessary number of drills.

The Territorial Army is organised in 14 divisions and 14 cavalry brigades on lines similar to the Regular Army. All the higher units have their own field-artillery, garrison-artillery, mountain-artillery, horse-batteries, ammunition-columns, engineers, cyclists, medical and such other subsidiary services. All the officers of the territorials, except the divisional officers and some of the staff officers, are non-professional, *i.e.*, non-

military men. The officers are trained in the Officer's Training Corps which is supplied by the colleges, public schools and universities. When called out for active service the territorials receive pay just as the regulars and on the same scale. The General Officers Commanding are responsible to the War Office (*i.e.*, to the Army Council) for the training of the force. But the whole administration and management of the Territorial Army is entrusted to local "County Associations" which undertake to raise, equip and maintain the force, the funds being provided by the War Office. The territorial army is liable to serve only for Home defence in time of war. But territorials are now allowed to volunteer for service abroad. But before being sent on active service abroad they are trained for six months after war breaks out. The strength of the territorial army, which is the same in peace and war, was in 1913 as follows:—

Arm.	Permanent Staff, All Ranks.	Territorial,		Total.
		Officers	Others.	
Yeomanry ...	328	1,180	22,915	24,423
Horse and Field Artillery ...	450	988	28,685	[illegible],123
Garrison Artillery ...	135	394	8,955	9,484
Engineers ...	173	524	12,406	13,105
Infantry & Cyclists...	1,250	4,855	162,462	168,576
Departmental troops	194	1,533	19,379	21,106
Grand total ...	2,539	9,480	254,801	266,820

III. Miscellaneous Forces.

Apart from the Territorial Force there are certain other forces, though of less importance. One of the more important ones of those is the *Officer's Training Corps* which was founded in 1909. Its senior Division includes contingents from 21 universities and colleges, and its junior Division is furnished by 159 public schools. The primary function of the Corps is to train young officers for the "Special reserve" and the Territorial Force. It also drills and trains students and collegians who form the Corps. The whole training is directly supervised by the general staff, and is on a higher level than that obtained in the former University Volunteer Corps and th School Cadet Corps.

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B. THE INDIAN ARMY.

The Indian Army is organised on the same pattern as the British Army in the United Kingdom. It was redistributed by Lord Kitchener when he was Commander-in-Chief in India; and this has made it all the more efficient. The whole army is now formed into 9 divisions, with the exception of a Burma Division. Each Division is a complete unit in itself, with all its arms, complements, and its general and staff. These divisions are distributed into two great armies, the one known as the "Northern Army" and the other as the "Southern Army."

The *Northern Army* has its headquarters at Murree, and it consists of the following divisions at the following stations:—

First Division	.. Peshawar
Second ,,	.. Rawalpindi.
Third ,,	.. Lahore.
Seventh ,,	.. Meerut.
Eighth ,,	.. Lucknow.

The *Southern Army* has its headquarters at Ootacamund and consists of the following divisions at the following stations:—

Fourth Division	.. Quetta.
Fifth ,,	.. Mhow.
Sixth ,,	.. Poona.
Ninth ,,	.. Ootacamund.

There is in addition a "Burma Division" stationed at Mandalay.

This was the redistribution made by Lord Kitchener. The Military Supply Department with its Member on the Viceroy's Council was also abolished. And the Commander-in-Chief is now the only Military Member of the Council, and responsible for the whole Army.

The strength of the Indian Army on April 1st 1913 was as follows:—

Troops under the orders of the Commander-in-Chief in India.	
British Officers	5,686
British Warrant and Non-Commissioned-Officers, and men	73,395
Indian Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers and men	149,920
Troops not under the orders of the Commander-in-Chief.	
British Officers	9
Indian Officers Non-Commissioned Officers and men	22,751
Total	252,741

The number of Volunteers in India on April 1st 1913 was as follows:—

Enrolled strength	41,083
Efficients	33,830
Reservists	3,176

C.—THE COLONIAL ARMIES.

I.—AUSTRALIA.

The peace strength of the Australian Militia is 105,000. Its war strength is 150,000. By the Federal Law of 1910 military training is compulsory on all male citizens between the ages of 12 and 26; in *Cadet Corps* between the ages of 12 and 18, and as *Citizen Soldiers* betwen the ages of 20 and 26, with short periods of training in the field (16 days) every year. Most of the Australian troops are Mounted Infantry.

II.—NEW ZEALAND.

The peace strength of the New Zealand Militia is about 30,000. Military training is compulsory on all male citizens between the ages of 12 and 25; in *Cadet Corps* between the ages of 12 and 18, and in the *Territorial Force* between the ages of 18 and 25, with short periods of training in the field every year.

III.—CANADA.

The peace strength of the Canadian Militia is about 75,000. In war, the strength can be more than doubled. Service in the Militia is universal and compulsory on all male citizens from the age of 18 to 60. Service in the active Militia is for three years, with 8 to 16 days annual training in the field.

IV. SOUTH AFRICA.

The number of Imperial Troops in South Africa is 6,800. The Union of South Africa Troops were created by the Defence Act of 1912. Their peace strength is 20,000. The Act divides them into:—

(1) Permanent Force
(2) Coast Garrison Force
(3) Citizen Force
(4) Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve
(5) Special Reserve.

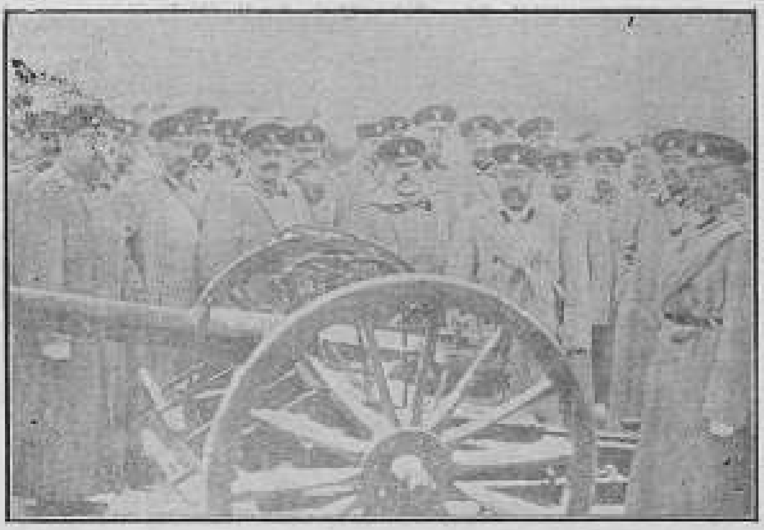
Every citizen between the ages of 17 and 60 is liable to render personal service in time of war, and those between 21 and 25 are liable to render a prescribed peace training with the active Citizen Force spread over a period of four consecutive years.

FRENCH TROOPS.

ALGERIAN TROOPS.

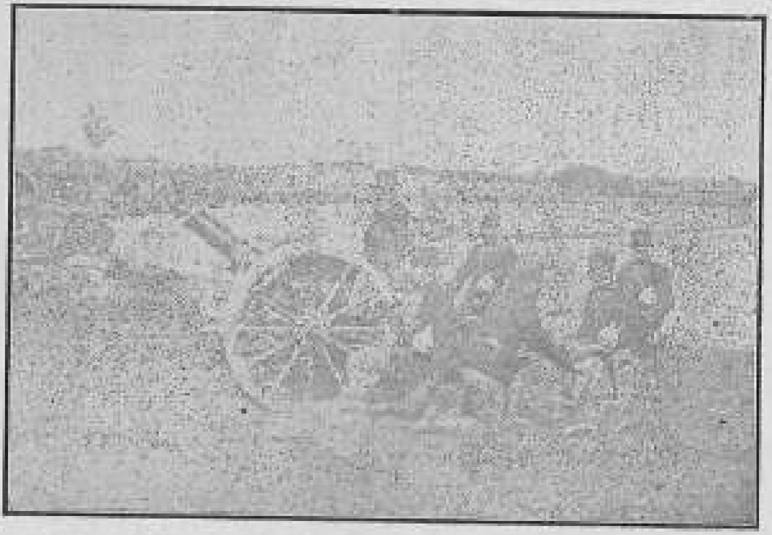
A TROOP OF GERMAN INFANTRY ON THE MARCH.

BELGIAN INFANTRY AT NAMUR.



RUSSIAN OFFICERS IN THE FIELD.

LONDON TERRITORIALS.



ARTILLERYMEN OF THE AUSTRIAN ARMY.

SERVIAN CAVALRY ON THE WAY TO THE FRONT.

THE FRENCH ARMY.

THE head of the whole French Army is the Minister of War who is a member of the French Cabinet. There is also a "Superior Council of War," a body corresponding to the British "Army Council," consisting of General-Officers of high commands, entrusted with the organisation, distribution, preparation, equipment and concentration of the army. The Minister of War is the President, and the Chief of the General Staff is the Vice-President.

Military service is compulsory and universal in France, and the only exemption allowed is in the case of those who are physically unable to serve. Liability to serve begins at the age of 20 and ends at the age of 48. Conscripts join at the age of 20. According to the Service Law enacted last year the term of service with the active army is three years (it was two years before the Act.) After serving in the active army, the soldier goes into the "Army Reserve" for 11 years. After that he belongs to the Territorial Army for seven years. He completes his military service after serving for a further period of seven years in the Territorial Reserve, in which however he is not called out for any further training. He is liable, of course, to be called out in time of war.

The French Army is divided into the National Army called the "Metropolitan Army," and the Colonial Army, both being under the War Minister. The National Army is divided into various "regions," each "region" having in peace time one complete army corps with all its attached units. The infantry is first of all organised into battalions. Three battalions form a regiment. Two regiments make a brigade. Two brigades make a division, and two divisions an army corps. Every division has a Field-Artillery of 9 batteries (36 guns), French batteries having 4 guns each. Each army corps, therefore, has 18 batteries, and in addition have 9 field and three howitzer batteries,—a total of 30 batteries per corps. There are also 6 reinforcing batteries. So that in all there are 36 batteries with 144 guns in each army corps. There are also 42 heavy batteries of two guns each which are distributed among the various army corps. The total strength of a French Army corps is about 33,000 combatants.

There are 10 cavalry divisions, each consisting of 3 brigades of 2 regiments each, with a horse artillery of 2 batteries—in all 24 squadrons and 12 guns. The total strength of a cavalry division is about 4,700 combatants.

The French army possesses a very strong Air Corps consisting of 27 sections of 8 aeroplanes each, 10 cavalry sections of 3 aeroplanes each, and 11 fortress sections of 8 aeroplanes each,—in all 334 aeroplanes. In addition it has 14 dirigibles.

There is a "Gendarmerie" (military police) of 25,000 men stationed in the different "regions."

There are 36 divisions of "Reserve" troops, and also 36 divisions of the Territorial Army, distributed over the different "regions."

The total Active Army of France comes to 800,800. The Reserve troops number about 500,000. So that the total first line army is about 1,300,000.

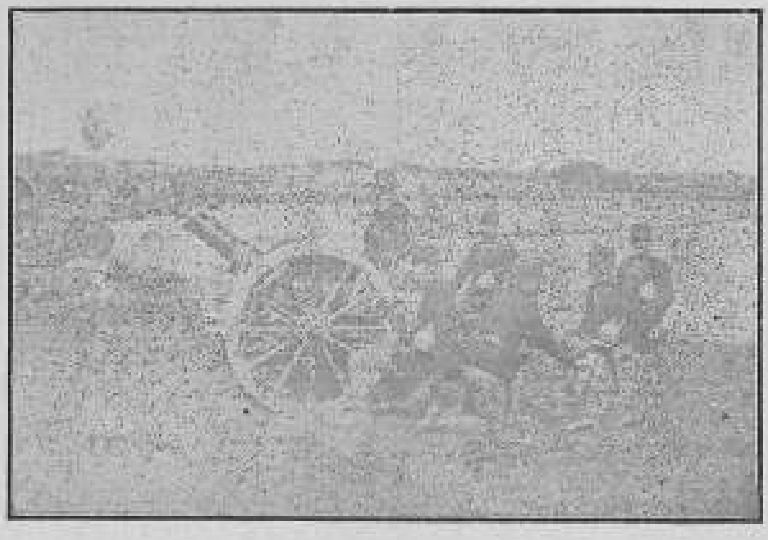
France has also in addition a Colonial Army consisting partly of French troops, and partly of native troops. The Colonial troops are recruited for the most part on voluntary enlistment. There is a force of 28,000 Colonial troops permanently stationed in France in peace. There is a force of 47,000 French soldiers in the Colonies, and 40,000 native soldiers. In addition to these there are 53,000 French troops in Algeria and Tunis and 30,000 native troops. So that in all France has a Colonial army of about 200,000.

The military budget of France this year was for £42,000,000.

THE BELGIAN ARMY.

THE Belgian army is half voluntary and half conscript. Those who desire to make the army a profession are enlisted voluntarily, those under 18 being engaged for 5 or 7 years and those over that age for 3 or 5 years. Those recruited as conscripts serve only for 15 months in the infantry and 2 years in the cavalry, after which they are on 8 years' "unlimited furlough" during which they are called out for training for 4, 6 or 8 weeks in the 2nd, 3rd and 4th year of their service. There is a further period of 5 years in the Reserve. The defence of the country rests on the fortresses of Liege, Namur and Antwerp.

The field army of Belgium early this year consisted of 6 divisions and 2 cavalry divisions. The strength of an infantry division is 22,000, and that of a cavalry division at 4,000 combatants. The garrisons of the fortresses amounted to 140,000. There is a "Gendarmerie," a semi-military corps of 4,000. There is also a Civic Guard of 46,000 for employment in war on lines of communication and assisting in garrisoning the fortresses. The peace strength of the army is 57,000, and its war strength 350,000. The expenditure on the army last year was £ 4,000,000.



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THE RUSSIAN ARMY.

THE Russian army was completely re-organised after the war with Japan and re-distributed with the addition of six new army corps. It consists of four distinct and separate armies; one in Europe, the second in the Caucasus, the third in Turkestan and the fourth in Siberia and the Far East. There are in all 27 army corps in Europe, 3 in the Caucasus, 2 in Turkestan and 5 in Siberia and the Far East. The war strength of a Russian army corps is about 20 per cent. greater than the normal strength of other European army corps. Each army corps in Russia draws its troops from a particular district. Recruits and reservists have to travel long distances sometimes to reach their corps. And the absence of good railway communications, therefore, makes mobilisation a slower process in Russia than in Germany or France.

Military service is universal and compulsory in Russia. In Finland there is a tax of 13,000,000 Marks in lieu of compulsory military service. It begins at the age of 20 and ends at the age of 43. Active service is for 3 years, after which the soldier passes to the Reserve for 15 years, during which period he has two trainings of six weeks each. After that he passes for five years to the second Reserve, the *Dpolchenie*, in which he remains till his 43rd birthday. The latter is a sort of supplementary reserve for home defence only.

The Cossack forces have a special organisation. They come from the south-western portion of European Russia and hold their land by military tenure, and are liable to serve for life. They provide their own horses and equipment like the Indian Silladar Cavalry. Service begins at the age of 19. Cossacks of any age, however, may be called out for national defence. Their peace strength is 66,000 and war strength is 150,000.

A Russian division consists of 2 brigades, each brigade consisting of 2 regiments of 4 battalions each, and has in addition an artillery brigade of 6 or 8 batteries, each having 8 guns, with ammunition columns, 1 engineer battalion and 2 or 3 squadrons of Cossacks. An army corps consists of 2 such divisions. A cavalry division consists of 2 brigades of 2 regiments each, with 2 batteries of horse artillery of six guns each. There are 20 such cavalry divisions. Several army corps have an army corps attached to them. The fighting strength of an army corps is about 36,000 men; or with a cavalry division 40,000 men. There are also in European Russia, Rifle Brigades of 8 battalions each, with their own artillery of 3 batteries. These are not included in the army corps, but are considered as special troops. There are also three aerial battalions.

The peace strength of the Russian army, excluding Cossacks, 150,000, and Frontier Battalions 41,000, is as follows:—

	In Europe and the Caucasus.	In Asia.
Infantry ..	627,000	83,000
Cavalry ..	116,000	14,000
Artillery ..	138,000	15,000
Engineers ..	34,000	8,000
Army Services ..	34,000	5,000
Total ..	949,000	124,000

The war strength of the Russian army is estimated at about 5,000,000 men. But they are not all available in any one part of the Empire. The military budget for 1913 was for £68,000,000.

THE SERVIAN ARMY.

MILITARY service is compulsory and universal in Servia. Liability begins at the age of 18, and training at the age of 21. Service ends at the age of 45, but liability tends till the age of 50. The Servian Army consists of three "bans" or lines. The first line is the active army and its reserve. In this, service is for 18 months in the infantry, (2 years in the cavalry) with the colours, and 10 years in the reserve, with limited periods of training. In the second line, service is for 6 years, and in the third line (the Militia) for 7 years. Besides this, there is the *levé en masse* which consists of all who have passed through the National Army and all other males between 18 and 50.

Servia is divided into 5 divisional areas, each furnishing a division of the active army, a division consisting of 2 brigades of 2 regiments each, each regiment consisting of 4 battalions. In addition, each division has a field artillery regiment of 9 batteries each, each battery consisting of 4 guns. There is also attached a regiment of cavalry. There is only one cavalry division consisting of four regular regiments, two horse batteries, one regiment of mountain artillery, and one of howitzers. The second line of the Servian Army could provide in war 15 regiments of 3 battalions each, 5 regiments of divisional cavalry and some engineers. The third line, which is for home defence, could also provide a similar strength. The peace strength of the Servian Army in 1911, before the Balkan war, was given at 360,000. The Military budget for 1914 was about £200,000.

THE GERMAN ARMY.

ON the formation of the German Empire in 1871, the armies of the various States of the North German Confederation were united into the army of the German Empire and the control of these armies passed to the Imperial Crown. The present Imperial army of Germany therefore consists of four distinct sections: (1) the troops of Prussia and those of the smaller States administered by her with 18 army corps; (2) the troops of Bavaria with 4 army corps; (3) the troops of Saxony with 2 army corps; and (4) the troops of Wurtemburg with one army corps. It is because of this distinction that is still maintained, that though the German army is for all practical purposes an Imperial army, and is paid for by the Empire as a whole, there is no Imperial War Office. Prussia and the three other States have each their own War Office and Staff. The Emperor, however, is the head of the whole army by the terms of the Constitution and as such he exercises his authority through the War Minister of Prussia of which he is the king. The armies of the different states are all modelled on the Prussian pattern, even to the cut and colours of their uniforms. In time of peace they are all subject to the Emperor's inspection, but in time of war they are all directly under his orders. The strength of the army is entirely determined by Imperial Laws. The Emperor cannot declare war without the assent of the Federal Council, unless the Empire is actually threatened. But he can at any time mobilize the whole army, and can also order the building of fortresses in any part of the Empire.

Military service is universal and compulsary in Germany. All subjects are liable either to bear arms or to render such other service as they are capable of for military purposes. Only those are exempted who are not drawn by lot for active service, or are not physically fit to serve, or are criminals, or are the only sons of widowed mothers, or helpless families, or are those who have to keep going an agricultural or industrial concern. Every male citizen if drawn for service is liable for it at the age of 17. Actual service, however, begins at the age of 20, and lasts for 7 years in the standing army, 2 years in the ranks and 5 years in the reserve, and in the case of cavalry and horse artillery, 3 years in the ranks and 4 years in the reserve. During the period of reserve the soldier has to join his corps twice for training from six to eight weeks each time.

The next line of the army is the *Landwehr*, a reserve in which the soldier has to remain for another 5 years. In the *Landwehr* he is called out twice for exercise for a period of 8 to 15 days each time. After this he is in the second "bar" of the *Landwehr* till he reaches the age of 40. There is no further training during this period.

The third line of the army is the *Landstrum*, in which he remains till the age of 45. The *Landstrum*, is purely a home defence force.

The total number of conscripts drawn by lot every year is over 50,000, of whom only about a half are assigned to the army.

In addition to these recruits, there are about 50,000 *Volunteers* enrolled every year. There are "one year volunteers" consisting of men with a certain amount of educational qualifications. They clothe, feed and equip themselves and serve only for one year with the colours instead of two, after which they pass to the reserve.

When called out the families of the Reservists who may be in straitened circumstances are entitled to pecuniary assistance to the extent of six Marks a week for the wife (nine in winter), and four Marks for every child.

The organisation of the German army is as follows.—The infantry is organised first into battalions. Three battalions form a regiment, two regiments form a brigade. Two brigades form a division. And two divisions form an army corps. Two of the army corps have, however, three divisions each, and ten divisions have three brigades each. In war, however, all army corps have three divisions, and most of the divisions have three brigades, the extra numbers being made up from the immediate reserve. Each Infantry Division has attached to it in war, an artillery brigade consisting of 12 batteries, and a cavalry regiment consisting of four squadrons. Each army corps has also 4 batteries of heavy Howitzers attached to it and an engineer battalion. Every field battery has six guns. The war strength of a two-brigade division is about 14,000 combatants. That of an army corps of two divisions, is 30,000. The strength of a three brigade division is 21,000; and that of an army corps of six brigades, 43,000. In all there are 25 army corps in the German army. There is only one cavalry division in time of peace, but in war 8 divisions could be formed.

Early this year the German army consisted of 651 battalions, 555 squadrons, 633 batteries, 226 batteries of heavy and fortress artillery, 44 engineer battalions, 21 communication battalions, 26

"train" battalions, five aeroplane battalions, and 25 military airships. The total peace establishment was over 800,000, officers and men and 158,000 horses. The total war strength was estimated at 4,350,000, including the field army and its reserves. The *Landwehr* consists of 1,800,000, and the trained men of the *Landstrum* 800,000. The military expenditure of the German Empire for the year 1913-14 was £ 38 millions.

Germany has a colonial force of 2,600 officers and men all German, and 3,800 native soldiers. They are under the direct orders of the Imperial Chancellor. The garrison at Kiao-Chau numbers about 2,700. Native Chinese troops were also being organised for some time past. In German South-West Africa there are 150 officers and 2,000 men, all Germans.

THE AUSTRIAN ARMY.

The field army of the Austro-Hungarian Empire is an organisation common to both the kingdoms of the Empire. There is also in addition, a fully organised second-line army in each of the kingdoms, both Austria and Hungary having their own separate *Landwehrs*. The two kingdoms have also their own separate third-line armies consisting of their respective *Landstrums*.

The Austro-Hungarian War Minister is the head of the common army and the Imperial War Office, and is a minister common for both the kingdoms. Both Austria and Hungary have their own Defence Ministers at the heads of their separate forces (the *Landwehrs* and the *Landstrums*), and are responsible to their respective parliaments for their administration, and to the common King-Emperor.

Military service is compulsory and universal throughout the whole Empire, and for all the races within it, including the Mohammedans of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Liability to serve begins at the age of 19 and ends at the age of 42. Actual service, however, commences in the 21st year. In the Active Common Army, service is for 2 years with 10 years in the reserve. It is the same in the separate *Landwehrs* of the two kingdoms. All reservists undergo a training of 14 weeeks in not more than four annual periods. After 12 years of service (active and reserve) the soldier passes to the *Landstrum* in which he remains till his 42nd birthday. Conscripts of the proper age and physical fitness draw numbers before enrollment. Those drawing the lower numbers are assigned to the Common Army of the Empire. Those drawing the higher numbers are assigned to the *Landwehrs*; and the remaining to the supplementary reserves. One-year volunteers are also admitted in the army. The annual number of recruits for the Common Army is 167,000, of whom about 6,000 go to the Navy.

The Austro-Hungarian Army is divided into 16 army corps "districts," each district having one complete army corps. An Austro-Hungarian army corps consists of two divisions, and 1 regiment of field artillery, 1 pioneer battalion, and 1 bridging company. Each division consists of 2 brigades, each brigade being made up of 8 battalions. Besides this, each division has one artillery brigade consisting of 10 batteries of six guns each, a regiment of cavalry and a rifle battalion. Each army corps "district" has also one *Landwehr* division. The total strength of an army corps is about 34,000.

There are six cavalry divisions, but 8 could be mobilised in war. A cavalry division consists of two cavalry brigades (each cavalry brigade consisting of 12 squadrons) together with 3 batteries of horse artillery and a machine-gun detatchment. The total strength of a cavalry division is about 4,000 combatants.

The total strength of the regular field army is about 590,000. The Austrian and Hungarian *Landwehrs* number about 230,000. So that the total first line fighting strength is about 820,000. The war strength is estimated at 1,360,000 for the Common Army and 240,000, and 220,000 respectively for the Austrian and Hungarian *Landwehrs*, making a total of 1,820,000 in all. If all the Classes of the third line army of the *Landstrums* were embodied, it is estimated that Austria-Hungary could put about 3,500,000 men in the field. The total expenditure on the standing Common Army and the standing Austrian and Hungarian *Landwehrs* was £25,000,000 in 1913.

INDIA'S FIGHTING RACES.

THE SIKHS.

Quite a third of the Indian Army is composed of Sikhs. The founder of their religion was a contemporary of the first two Mogul Emperors, who infused fire into, and evolved a united body out of, the existing military classes of the Punjab. The new religion was a national mixture of what was best in Hinduism and Mahomedanism. The Sikhs are thus not exactly a race, but a military caste bound to one another by the tie of religion. A strong religious sentiment and sterling military ability are the two traits in the composition of every Sikh.

At the dawn of the seventeenth century, the Sikhs first appear in history as a political factor. Govind Singh, the last of the *Gurus*, whose father was martyred by Aurangzeb, preached that war, especially against the Mahommedans, was the first duty of his adherents. He levelled up all caste distinctions, instituted the military brotherhood of the Khalsa, and transformed them into such doughty warriors that, within a century after his death, they had dominated the whole of Northern India. The kingdom which they carved for themselves attained the zenith of splendour under Maharaja Ranjit Singh who died in 1839. It was destroyed as the result of the Sikh wars of 1845-6 and 1848-9 waged against the British, in which both sides fought with the utmost gallantry.

The Sikhs, by their courage in these wars, gained the admiration of the British and have ever since been loyal British subjects. They have fought side by side with British soldiers not only in the Mutiny, but in Abyssinia, Afghanistan, China, Burma, Somaliland and Tibet. In dealing with the invaluable services rendered by Indian troops during the storm of the Mutiny, the late Sir William Hunter has truly said: "The Sepoy Army has built up the fabric of the British Empire in India." And among the troops who helped to save the British dominion in India at that period, the Sikhs were not the least conspicuous. But for the help of the "Sikh, Hindu and Mahommedan sepoys and police," in the words of Capt. L. J. Trotter, "our own countrymen would have fought in vain."

The Sikhs are noted for their brilliant bayonet charges. Holding the butt of their guns with both hands, they mercilessly drive the steel into the abdomen or ribs of their enemies. They sometimes wear quoits round their turbans. These steel discs with razor-sharp edges they fling with great force at their enemies, invariably cutting off their heads.

Various instances of Sikh bravery may be told. The storming of the fort of Dargai during the Tirah campaign of 1897 was one of their most brilliant exploits. In the same year, a garrison of 21 privates of the 36th Sikhs occupied a tiny mud blockhouse at Saragbari, a signalling post on the North-West Frontier. They kept at bay nearly 8,000 Orakzais for six and a half hours, and not until the whole garrison had been extirpated were the fanatic horde able to break into the fort. In the Chitral campaign of 1895, a Sikh private covered himself with glory. In the words of Mr. Saint Nihal Singh: "Although suffering from such a serious wound in his leg that eventually it had to be amputated," he "stubbornly refused to permit himself to be carried to the rear by the bearer corps, but gallantly kept on fighting until he swooned from loss of blood." The siege of Arrah during the Mutiny afforded a touching example of Sikh fidelity. The Sikhs remained true to their British comrades, doing everything in their power to cheer and preserve them. Similar deeds of Sikh dash and daring are many.

The Indian Army at present includes thirteen Sikh battalions, and there are one or more Sikh squadrons in each of the Cavalry regiments, as well as a company or two in each of the Infantry battalions. They are tall broad-shouldered men and the flower of the Indian Army. They are very independent, but obey discipline for discipline's sake, and their Officers for love of them. The Jat-Sikhs combine the best qualities of the Pathan races with those of the Sikh tribes. They are the finest types of free, self-respecting, well-disciplined, in contradistinction to machine-made, soldiers. According to Mr. Reginald Hodder: "In the thick of battle the Sikh is cool and resolute. He is possessed of grim determination and tenacity. Just as in any emergency of social life he will keep his head with admirable self restraint, so in the clash of battle he can be relied upon to do the right thing at the right moment in the right way. While not possessing quite so much *élan* as some other tribes, he more than compensates for that lack by his immunity from any tendency to panic."

THE GURKHAS.

There are twenty complete infantry battalions of these brave little men in the Indian Army. As fighters in the hills, they are unsurpassed even by the Pathans of the North-West Frontier. Their proficiency as soldiers was first proved in the Nepal War of 1814, the most sanguinary in the history of British wars in India. They proved themselves to be as formidable as enemies then as they are invaluable to-day as brothers-in-arms. "Brave as lions, vain as peacocks, faithful as dogs, with few prejudices in peace and none in war," they are, as has been well said by a British officer who knows them well, "the special friends and companions" of Tommy Atkins. They do not, like the Sikhs, throw away their food if a white man's shadow falls upon it, but eat their food on a campaign with as few formalities as the British soldier drinks his beer. Their national weapon is the *kukri*, a knife with a broad, curved blade, and their skill with it is so remarkable that, given a human mark, say, in the shape of a German, they can take off his nose or ear, or pierce his eye with unerring precision. They never lose a chance of practising with this weapon, which they carry in addition to their other arms, suspended from their waist belts. It is the deft and singular use they make of this remarkable weapon, that make these valiant little men of Nepal so terrible in war.

Their valour has won for them the appellation of the "Highlanders of India." Beside their big Scotch brothers-in-arms they appear, however, as the "Little Benjamins" of the Indian Expeditionary Force. They are largely of Mongolian origin, but some of them have Rajput blood flowing in their veins. Their Hinduism is strongly tinctured with Buddhism, although they eat meat, are fond of liquors and use tobacco. They are short of stature and inclined to be stout. This has given rise to the *bon mot* that "they are 5 feet high in some places, and 5 feet round in others." Anecdotes illustrative of the Gurkha's ready wit, colossal vanity and happy conceit are many. On being praised for their gallantry in the assault on Bhurtpore, they returned the compliment, saying: "The English are as brave as lions; they are splendid sepoys, and *very nearly* equal to us." When Colonel Younghusband met the Russian explorer, Gromschefski, in the Pamirs, a Gurkha officer of the escort approached their commander with the request: "Tell the big Russian that though *we* are small men, all the rest of our regiments are taller than he is."

The Gurkha * in the middle of the 18th century conquered the Nepal valley. In 1776, they defeated the Ruler of Sikkim, and subsequently extended their rule to the neighbouring States, including Tibet. During the war with the English, they displayed brilliant courage, and amply justified their title to be regarded as among the finest fighting races in the world. As the result of their bravery in the war, their indomitable spirit was linked with that of the British, and it has subsequently been displayed on many a field side by side with the British. The second Tibetan War in 1854 was another important event in recent Gurkha history. They have been a dominant military race for the last century and a half. Since the peace of Segowli, the relations of the Nepal Durbar with the British Indian Government have been most cordial. Shortly after the outbreak of the present war, the Prime Minister of Nepal placed the army of the State at the disposal of the British Government, besides giving a sum of Rs. 330,000 for equipping Gurkha soldiers serving in British regiments with machine guns.

The heroic exploits of the Gurkhas side by side with the Highlanders in numberless campaigns serve to explain the fact why the arms of the late Lord Roberts came to bear, as supporters, a Highlander and a Gurkha. One of the heroes of the Mutiny was Colonel Gambar Singh, then a Gurkha sepoy. At Lucknow, he captured three guns and killed seven mutineers, single-handed, and armed only with his *kukri*. He was wounded in twenty-three places, lost some of his fingers, and had one of his hands nearly cut off, but refused to give up the struggle until he had accomplished his wonderful feat of arms. This is the spirit which animates the Gurkhas, and which has made it possible for them to carry so many battle honours on the standards of their Regiments. These include "Aliwal," "Sobraon," "Kandahar," "China 1900," "Afghanistan 78/80," and many others. The same spirit has shown itself on the Continent during the past few months. The following excerpt from one of the newest of new books on the War well illustrates this: "When the Gurkhas were told that they were wanted to fight in the great war they asked, 'Shall we all be killed;' and the officer said, 'Not all.' They inquired, 'Shall a great many be killed?' He replied 'Possibily.' Then they asked, 'Will a hundred come back?' 'Perhaps so.' 'That will be enough,' they said: 'our people will know that we have fought well.'"

THE MAHRATTAS.

The Mahrattas, who have been called the "Cossacks of India," possess in an exceptional degree two of the most essential of soldierly virtues—stardiness and tenacity. Rough riding across country has been their speciality since the beginning of the sixteenth century, when they first prominently figure in history. They are "particularly adept at rapidily dashing into the enemy's domains, delivering a deadly blow, and safely retreating." This was the method of warfare which they successfully employed against the Moghuls under their great leader Sivaji. Towards the close of the eighteenth century the Mahrattas had become masters of all Hindustan, but their dominion fell to pieces soon after as the result of their conflict with the British.

The recruiting area allotted to the old Bombay Army was larger in extent than that of the other presidential armies. The Mahrattas formed the strength of this Army however, and were recruited from the Konkan and the Dekhan. The latter area have furnished the best troops, who are short, hardy and brave. The Konkani Mahrattas in the ranks are numerically stronger, and, though taller and smarter than the Dekhanis, do not compare with them in endurance. The two classes now compose altogether fifty-four companies of infantry.

They are not born fighters, but Mahommedan persecutions drove the erstwhile peasants of the Dekhan into rebellion and they developed warlike instincts. They were converted into efficient soldiers by Sivaji and soon became aware of their capacity for conquest. Under him they formed loose hordes of lightly-clad horsemen, who hovered round camps and armies to carry off treasure, but avoided open encounters with regular armies in the field. Though somewhat under the average height, their irregular features indicate a tremendous capacity for endurance. Under their steady, quiet strength lie hid tractability, gentleness, patience and willingness to be led.

In their first meetings with them, the British found the Mahrattas formidable foes. In the second Mahratta War, Lake and Wellesley had a fortaste of the nature of "wild Mahratta battle," and of the terrible valour of the enemy who "fought like lions." At Laswarree, their prowess came as a surprise to Lake, who narrowly escaped being shot through the heart. He found his generalship matched by that of the Mahratta leader who, seeing the British preparing to decide matters by the bayonet, instantly ordered his cavalry to charge. "Horse and foot met in one great shock of battle; sabre rung out against bayonet and musket flashed against pistol and carbine." In the *melee* that ensued, the Mahrattas were defeated. A bayonet charge by a numerically small force of infantry again converted the odds against the British into a glorious victory at Assaye. In the teeth of Scindia's guns, the forlorn hope rashly advanced to the attack: the Mahrattas, amazed and awed at this piece of audacity, retired rather than meet the collision of British steel: and the day was eventually lost to the Mahrattas, who were swept off the field. Wellesley had two horses killed under him, and every one of his staff officers shared the same experience. His orderly's head was swept off by a cannon ball as he rode close by his side.

The Mahrattas have proved that they were foemen as worthy of British steel a century ago, as they are to-day the comrades-in-arms of Tommy Atkins, worthy of the Empire they defend. The Mahrattas in the 1st Bombay Infantry proved their grit at Maiwand. At Suakin in 1885, the Mahrattas in the 28th Bombay Infantry similarly proved their quality. The historian of the Mahrattas, while he does not place their soldierly qualities as high as those of the Sikhs and Gurkhas, admits that they make excellent soldiers. "The very fact of their having played so conspicuous and not always ignoble a part in the history of India," says Grant Duff, "marks them out as a race with some qualities of the genuine soldier." The Duke of Wellington, who had such ample opportunities of forming a judgment in regard to them, rated them highly. The marching and recuperative powers they displayed in the wars he waged against them, were often prodigious. It has at the same time been said that the courage of the Mahrattas of old was the courage of the freebooter, and that the highest instincts of the soldier were never theirs. Whatever may have been the case formerly, they are certainly courageous to-day from motives other than those of lucre. It has also been laid at their door that the mould in which they are cast is anything but heroic: they "lack the elegant proportions of the Jat Sikh, the sturdy, well-knit little figure of the Gurkha, the grandly muscular build of the Pathan." Perhaps a more correct estimate of them would be that, as soldiers, they are "capable of rendering solid and useful if not brilliant military service." That this is true will indubitably be shown by their achievements in the present war.

THE RAJPUTS.

The professional military caste of India from time immemorial, the Rajputs have always been men of high and noble sentiments and lofty ideals. Pride of race is their chief characteristic, and their one ambition has ever been to wield the sword, and wield it well. Of fine physique and martial bearing, they formed the backbone of the old Bengal Army, and have sustained the British flag in every campaign in the East. They now furnish 10 squadrons of cavalry and 100 companies of infantry in the Indian Army.

They are more or less pure-blooded modern Hindu representatives of the early Aryan emigrants. The more pure-blooded they are, the better soldiers they make. But they have been administrators as well as fighters, having always ruled in some part or other of India, and been ever famous for their military mettle. They have fairly preserved these characteristics. They disdain even now all professions except ruling and bearing arms, and above all, they despise agriculture. Sad economic conditions and the strict enforcement of the purdah, added to the habitual use of opium, are nowadays exerting a degenerating effect upon their physiques. Peace also has somewhat chilled their ancient military ardour. "But the Rajput is still a Rajput, and it would be as idle to deny that he makes a good soldier, as it would be to assert that he is still what he once was." In this peace-loving days, they are generally content to toy with their swords and shine in the reflected glory of their past achievements.

They know how to die, an essential of the true soldier. By discipline and example, they may be made to face death in a thousand grim forms; "but the dogged pertinacity, the spirit which refuses to recognise defeat, the capacity to rise above failure," are not theirs. They are easily depressed by failure. Nevertheless, a large portion of the Rajput population still furnish good fighting material. They learn to ride and hunt and use the sword when they are tiny tots, and early become excellent horsemen. They can gallop over the roughest country for miles together in the briefest space of time, and without food and drink. Naturally they make good cavalry-men, but also do very well in foot regiments. The sandy nature of their country has especially fitted them to serve in the Camel Corps. Many Rajput soldiers part their beards in the middle, and brush them straight back in a fashion that gives them a fierce look.

THE JATS.

The Jats are a fine warlike race found in Northern India—in the Punjab, Rajputana and the United Provinces. Tall, large-limbed, of majestic and often of handsome appearance, they are among the toughest of the military tribes. They furnish the Indian army with twenty-one squadrons of cavalry and sixty companies of infantry.

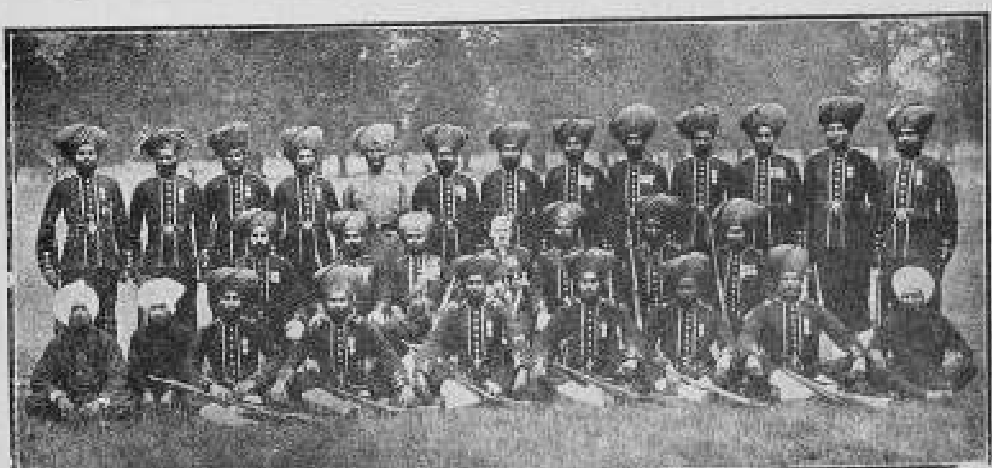
The name Jat is said to be derived from the Scythian tribe Jatii, who appear to have entered India later than the Aryans. They subdued considerable tracts previously occupied by Rajputs. Several of the greatest kings of early India, like Kanishka, were certainly Jats. The Jat recruits for the Indian army are mostly drawn from the Eastern Jats, a race of hardy peasants with military instincts, whose history has been marked by stern, hard fighting. The Khalsa Sikhs are drawn from the Jats, and owe their most lofty characteristics to them. The Jat Sikh respects himself wisely and is fully conscious that racially he is the flower of India.

From early days the district round Bhurtpore had a large Jat population. They carried on a desultory warfare with the early Muhammadan invaders. Long after, an expedition was sent by the Emperor Aurangzeb against the Jat Chief Churaman, whose stronghold was taken and his brother installed at Deeg as the Chief of the Jats by order of the Delhi Court. His son removed the Jat capital to Bhurtpore. He took a conspicuous part in the rebellions and civil wars which followed on the death of Aurangzeb. He joined the Maharattas in opposing Ahmed Shah Duranni, but owing to a disagreement withdrew his army before Panipat.

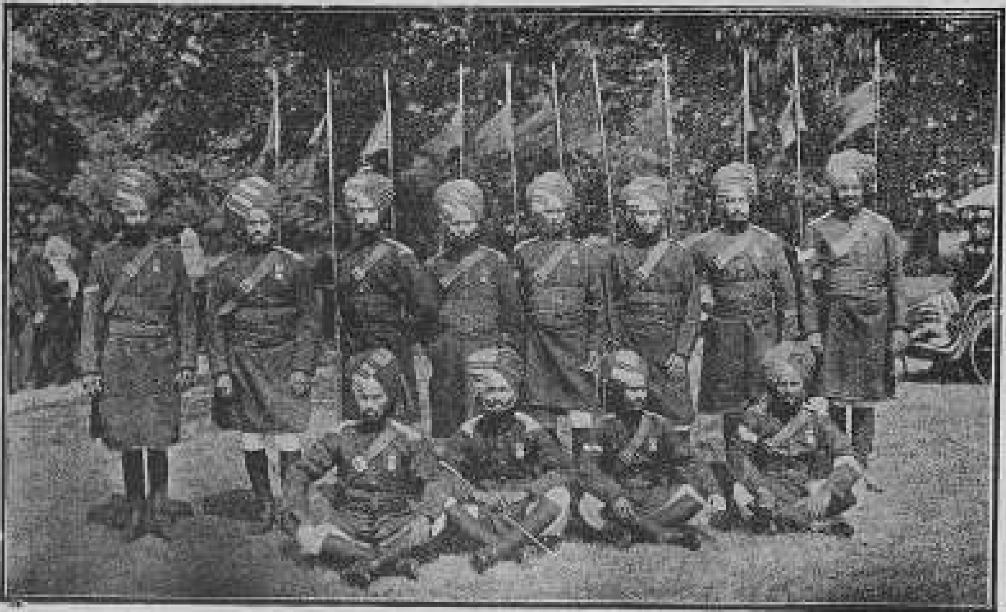
In 1805, the Jats held out with the utmost courage at Bhurtpore against the British, repelling three attacks delivered against the stronghold by Lord Lake's army. In 1827, owing to a disputed succession, Bhurtpore was again besieged and reduced by Lord Combermere.

The Jats exercise in their impatience a fine quality of individual freedom. This, together with the fact that they are neither truculent nor turbulent, makes them one of the best types of the well-disciplined soldiers. They are capable of enduring great fatigue and privation. The Sikh Jats are ethnically not different from the Hindu Jats, but their martial religion has helped to toughen their already hardy nature. Though not so sturdy as some of the races of Northern India, they are excellent fighting material.

GURKHAS ON THE MARCH IN FRANCE.



GROUP OF 15TH SIKH INFANTRY.

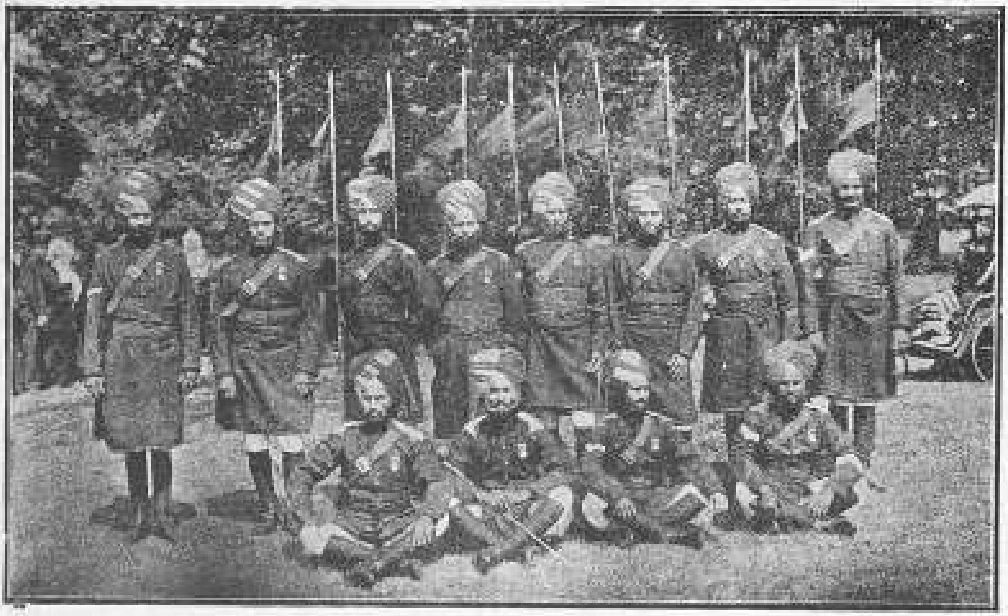


DETACHMENT OF SIKH INFANTRY.

BENGAL LANCERS.

INDIANS ADVANCING TO BATTLE TAKING ADVANTAGE OF EVERY INCH OF COVER.

T. P.'s Journal.



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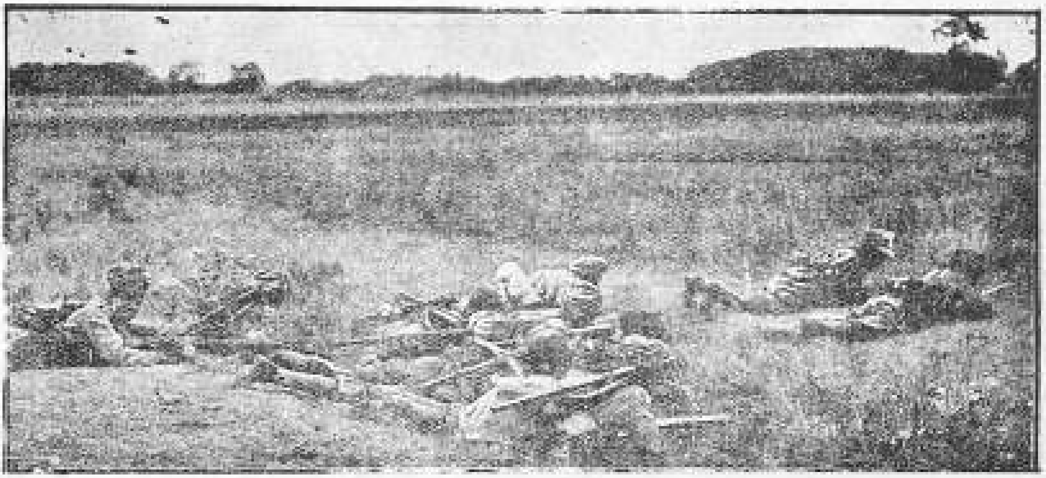


INDIANS ADVANCING TO BATTLE TAKING ADVANTAGE OF EVERY INCH OF COVER.

T. P.'s Journal.

THE RESPONSE OF INDIA TO THE EMPIRE'S CALL: TYPES OF NATIVE OFFICERS

COMMANDANT, BIKANIR CAMEL CORPS.

COMMANDANT, HOLKAR LANCERS.

COMMANDANT, NABHA LANCERS.

"Sporting and Dramatic News."

THE DOGRAS.

The Dogras are among the best fighting material to be found in India. They hail from the district of that name between the Chenab and the Sutlej. They may be designated "Rajput Highlanders." They have a keener sense of national pride and a higher feeling of national integrity than their compatriots of the plains, while the more bracing climate of their hills has given them finer physiques and cleaner complexions than the latter. The pioneer Rajputs, who were forced through discord at home to seek a home in these hills, and founded the various Dogra principalities, became independent with the dissolution of the Moghul Empire, but subsequently became subject to the Sikhs under Ranjit Singh. Gulab Singh, whom the latter made Rajah of Jummu, and who after his death became ruler of Kashmir, was a Dogra by race. The Dogras serve chiefly in the infantry. There are now 11 squadrons and 56 companies of this caste in the Army.

The Dogra is a shy, reserved man, with considerable strength of character. "He may not be so brilliant as the Pathan, nor so tenacious and subtle as the Gurkha, but he has a high idea of honour, is very self-respecting, and makes a capital soldier." His physique is not so fine as that of the Pathan or Sikh. They have long been known as brave and faithful soldiers, and loyalty to their salt is with them as the breath of their nostrils. Though shy and reserved, they are not lacking in force of character. They fling aside their caste prejudice when on active service. More solid than brilliant, they are full of quiet and resolute courage when face to face with danger.

The majority of the Dogra troops hail from Kangra—the best recruiting district in all India. Law-abiding and well-behaved, steady and resolute though not showy of courage, their virtues shine forth in moments of peril, when they will face certain death with a calm determination to do before they die. They are keen sportsmen and very good with the rifle. Their bravery and loyalty were proved at the siege of Delhi during the Mutiny, and at the battle of Ahmed Khel in the Second Afghan War. The Second Sikh Infantry raised at Kangra in 1846, and consisting entirely of Dogras, ratified their loyalty by assisting to quell a rebellion of their countrymen during the Mutiny. Their military value had been recognised as early as 1849, when large numbers of them were enlisted in the Punjab Frontier Force.

THE BALUCHIS.

The Baluchis, or the Moslem clans inhabiting Baluchistan, claim Semitic descent and kinship with the founder of their religion. There appears to be no doubt that they are of Arab origin. They early settled in Persia as pastoral nomads, but their rapid increase in numbers led to their expulsion and subsequent settlement in the tract now called Baluchistan. Their obvious admixture of Persian blood and characteristics is the result of their sojourn in Persia during the progress of their emigration. They are very similar to the Pathans in racial characteristics. The Brahuis, the other and the dominant race in Baluchistan, entered the country long after, and drove the Baluchis from the province of Khelat. The Khan of Khelat is a Brahui.

The Baluchis are tall, imposing-looking men, with regular features. The Brahuis are smaller than the Baluchis, with flatter features, and are an ancient Persian stock. Both races are Mahomedans, but not fanatical like the Pathans. The Baluchis have "the manly, frank, brave, strong nature of the Pathans, with a fund of patience" rendering them capable of enduring endless hardship; and "a fine dignified carriage and physique combined with a spirit of quick daring and sudden ferocity." Truthful, loyal and generous, they detest the servility, insolence, deceit and treachery characteristic of other tribes. In their homes they are very hospitable, but are rather lazy. Like the Pathans, their chief amusements are battle, murder and robbery. They are prone to quarrel and use their knives on each other on the slightest pretext. Their national weapons are a long knife, a sword and a shield. Like the Pathans, they are not overfond of the matchlock. This illustrates their readiness to face a foe on even terms—to engage in a hand-to-hand combat rather than to fire at him from a distance. They are fine horsemen and experts in horse and camel breeding.

There are as many as 52 Baluch tribes. The Baluchi regiments are recruited from both Brahuis and Baluchis, and these have on service shown their value as fighting units. The latter are born knifers, a fact based upon the primitive blood-thirstiness of their nature. A marked trait of their character is their strong adherence to discipline. Add to this their good marksmanship, their fidelity and tractability,—qualities which make them much prized as soldiers by British officers.

PUNJABI MUSSALMANS.

The term "Punjabi Mussalman" is used to describe the many minor fighting clans inhabiting the province such as the Ghakkars, Awans, Sials, Gujars, Tiwanas, Ahirs, etc. They are ethnically Aryo-Scythians, the descendants of Hindu converts to Islam, domiciled in the Land of the Five Rivers. They probably provide more soldiers for all branches of the Indian army than any of the races already dealt with. They make first-class soldiers, are easily disciplined, and are good marksmen. They naturally have the qualities of the Jats, Pathans, Rajputs, etc., from whom they are descended.

One of the results of Lord Kitchener's scheme of reorganising the heterogeneous forces of the Indian Empire into a compact and evenly distributed army, was the disbanding of all the Madras regiments. These were reconstituted as Punjab regiments consisting of Punjabi Mussalmans, Sikhs, Dogras, etc. A large number of Punjabi Mussalmans are recruited into the different cavalry regiments, but chiefly into the four regiments forming part of the famous frontier force. Among the tribes under this class from which recruits are drawn are the Awans of the south-west Punjab—a fine, well-built, brawny race who are splendid wrestlers. The Sials are another tribe, descendants of Rajput converts to Islam. The Tiwanas—whose head is the well-known Captain Malik Umar Hayat Khan of the Tiwana Lancers—are another tribe of Rajput origin, who supply numerous recruits both to the infantry and the cavalry. Some of the other Muslim clans of the Punjab who supply soldiers to the Indian army are the Ghakkars, an exceptionally fine race, proud, brave, high-spirited and self-respecting; the Gujars, hardy and well-built, formerly the dominant people about the Peshawar border, and still retaining some of their old martial instincts; the Karrals, of the Hazara district, recent Rajput converts to Islam; the Julahas, criminal and turbulent, and notoriously bumptious; and the Bhattis, a widely distributed tribe of Rajputs, tall, muscular, with refined features and well-bred ways.

Most of these clans are of Rajput, Jat, or Tartar descent. A large number of them are now with the Indian Contingent; and forming as they do the bulk of the personnel of the Punjab regiments, whose prowess is so well known, they may be trusted to give a very good account of themselves in the battlefield.

THE PATHANS.

The Mussalman tribes of mixed Indian, Afghan, and Scythian origin, inhabiting the countries round about Afghanistan and North-West India, and their descendants who have migrated to various parts are generally known as Pathans. They are of Aryo-Scythian or Turko-Iranian stock, and have been crossed and re-crossed by Tartar, Arab, Persian and other bloods. They however claim Jewish descent and call themselves *Beni-Israel* (children of Israel). The Mussalmans and Pathans of India furnish between them 68 squadrons of Cavalry and 250 companies of Infantry to the Indian Army. The cold climate and the hardy life of the mountains have preserved their virility. They are tall, stalwart, handsome fellows, usually with regular features and fair complexion, some of them with blue or grey eyes.

There are a great many of these tribes such as the Afridi, Waziri, Utman Khel, and Orakzai, all of Indian stock; the Muhammadzai, Shinwari, and Mohmund, who are of Afghan descent; the Bakhtiar and Shirani, of Scythian stock, the Barsich and Abdalli or Duranni, who are of pure Afghan stock; others of mixed Turkish and Afghan descent, besides the Ghilzai and Lodi tribes and the Suleman Khel, Ali Khel, etc., known as the Ibrahimzais.

Rude, untamed, independent and impatient of all restraint, there is no ordered government or central controlling authority among these tribes. They form so many warring commonwealths under their Khans. When not warring against one another, they are torn by internal feuds and disputes among themselves. The tribesmen are bigotted Sunnis, and obtain their livelihood by agricultural and pastoral pursuits, as wandering traders and as members of armed caravans.

As a soldier, the Pathan displays great dash and elan. Owing to his passionate nature, he is apt to lose his head, however, in the heat and excitement of battle. This leaves him at a disadvantage as compared with cooler-headed troops, who are otherwise his inferior. In British service, he has generally proved himself a loyal and devoted soldier. It would be absurd, however, to expect ethical notions of right, not self-interest, guiding him—with whom robbery and murder are as the breath of his nostrils. But set against this is his grit and nerve, his just and manly pride in himself and his recklessness of his own life—qualities which betoken the true soldier.

FIGHTING CLANS OF SOUTH INDIA

The bulk of the fighting material that at present constitutes the Indian Army is drawn from the Sikhs, Pathans, Gurkhas, Rajputs, Jats, Dogras, Mahrattas, Brahmins of the Punjab and U. P., and Punjabi Mussalmans. In view of the demand for more troops for the front, recruiting was recently ordered in Northern India for raising ten special companies. The selection for them was confined to certain Hindu tribes of the Punjab and Frontier Province, such as Harrols and Kharrols, Sails, Gondals, Beehas, Kakaries, Mahijats and Punjabi Brahmins. A table issued from Army Headquarters shows the extent to which recruits were enlisted from the various fighting classes up to the close of February to meet the demand for extra numbers. It is as follows :—

Class.		Annual Average Enlistment.	Number enlisted from 1st Sept. 1914 to 1st Feb. 1915. (Six months.)
Pathans	...	1,503	3,627
Punjabi Mussulmans	...	2,068	8,010
Sikhs	...	3,449	6,113
Dogras	...	602	1,748
Jats	...	740	2,406
Hindustani Mussulmans	...	724	1,143
Rajputs, Brahmins, Ahirs (U. P.)		995	2,092
Rajputana Classes	...	1,270	3,431
Dakhani Mahrattas	...	430	686
Konkani Mahrattas	...	179	665
Dakhani Mussulmans	...	350	460
Madrasis	...	889	2,842
Gurkhas	...	1,571	4,141
Garwalis	...	113	682
Total	...	14,892	38,046

The table shows that Southern India does not particularly appeal to the imagination of the military authorities for recruitment purposes. The number of Madrasis that are in the ranks of the Sepoy Regiments numbering 162,000 is only 9,000. A good number of these are Mahommedans; while a large proportion of the rest are described as "low castes," but are particularly efficient units of Sapper Companies.

The abolition of the faulty, antiquated system of distribution in isolated units was effected during the Commander-in-Chiefship of Lord Kitchener by the mustering out of a number of Madras Regiments, their places being taken by Punjabi or Gurkha Regiments recruited for service in the South. Southern India, all the same, offers a distinct and virgin field of recruitment from which large drafts of the right sort of men could be drawn to strengthen the Indian Army. That the descendants of men who under Stringer Lawrence, Clive and Eyre Coote, under Harris and Wellesley, had borne a conspicuous part in establishing the British Empire in India should, under proper training, make efficient soldiers, goes without saying. Estimating them at their lowest value, they could be placed on a par with second-rate European troops like the Spanish and Portuguese—the soldierly rank assigned them by the Duke of Wellington. That their old spirit is not dead and is still aflame was evidenced by the gallant defence made by the Madras Sapper Company at the Malakand not many years ago.

A bird's-eye view of some of the more important fighting castes of South India, with distinct military histories and traditions of their own, that may be put to use in the present crisis, will prove useful. The castes which still retain their ability to bear arms, and are recognised as such by the military authorities, being eligible for admission into existing regiments, include the Kallars, Maravars, Vellalas and Pallis, all Tamil-speaking clans; the Nairs, Tiyyas and Moplahs of Malabar; the Kapu or Reddi, Telagas or Telingas and Tottinjans, all Telegu-speaking castes; the Labbais or Sonagars, mixed Muhammadans of the Coromandel Coast, with unmistakable Arab blood in their veins; the Bedars, a Canarese-speaking tribe of hunters and agriculturists, and the Bantas of South India. There is space only to have a peep at the martial capabilities and past records of some of these.

The Kallars and Maravars are the hereditary robbers of the four southern districts of the Presidency. They live by crime actively or by blackmail negatively. The Kallars number over half-a-million, and even at the present day are much given to theft and dacoity. Their religion, their burial and marriage ceremonies, testify to their aboriginal descent. In the marriage ceremony, the chief event is the commission of a theft, and no girl could marry a man who had not committed some crime. In 1891, the Maravars numbered three hundred thousand men. They are believed to have been one of the first of the Dravidian tribes that penetrated to the south of the peninsula. In former days, they were a fierce and turbulent race noted for their military prowess. At one time they were masters temporarily of the Pandya Kingdom, and later

their armies actively helped Tirumal Naik, the famous ruler of Madura. As a means of keeping them in check and making them turn from their evil ways, a suggestion was made to the Madras Government some twenty years ago—in response to their inquiry as to the best means of weaning these anxiety-working tribes from their predatory habits—that regiments of them should be formed under their own hereditary chiefs. The proposal, however, for certain reasons was not carried into effect.

A typical Muhammadan fighting clan of the South are the Moplahs. A leading London weekly described them some years ago as "probably braver than the very bravest of the white races." They obtained their reputation for bravery from the prevalent impression that they inherited a strong strain of Arab blood from their fathers, but as has been indicated by the experiments of Mr. F. Fawcett—no mean authority—whatever foreign blood they had, has been eliminated long ago. The marvellous psychic effect of Islam on its uncivilised converts is well known. As was pointed out by Mr. Fawcett in an official report several years ago: "During the Soudan war we had unmistakable evidence of the extraordinary influence which Islamism has on the lower and uncivilised races. What made the immortal 'Fuzzy-Wuzzy' of Kipling's ballad such a 'first-rate fighting man?' Really nothing but the effect of Islam on his receptive nature. It is a creed which as if by magic turns the submissive into heroes." This is the secret of Moplah fanaticism, and the resultant outrages which have recurrently disturbed the peace of the district since the British occupation.

The Nairs are, as they have been designated in one of the newest of new books relating to the present War, "the Kshathriyas of Southern India." The Tiyyas, or toddy-tappers of Malabar, are of very good physique and should prove excellent material for making soldiers. The Coorgs are closely akin to the Nairs ethnically. The Reddis number about two millions and a half. They held a predominant position in the early centuries of the Christian era, and still possess great physical virility. The Pallis are a numerous class who were once largely employed as soldiers. So were the Labbais in days gone by famous as cavalry men. The Bedars gave a good account of themselves in the Mysorean wars against the British. Most of these tribes have converted their swords into ploughshares; but if the history and achievements of their forbears are any criterion, they should with the necessary training make themselves efficient troops on the battlefield.

THE INDIAN TROOPS IN FRANCE

HIS MAJESTY THE KING.

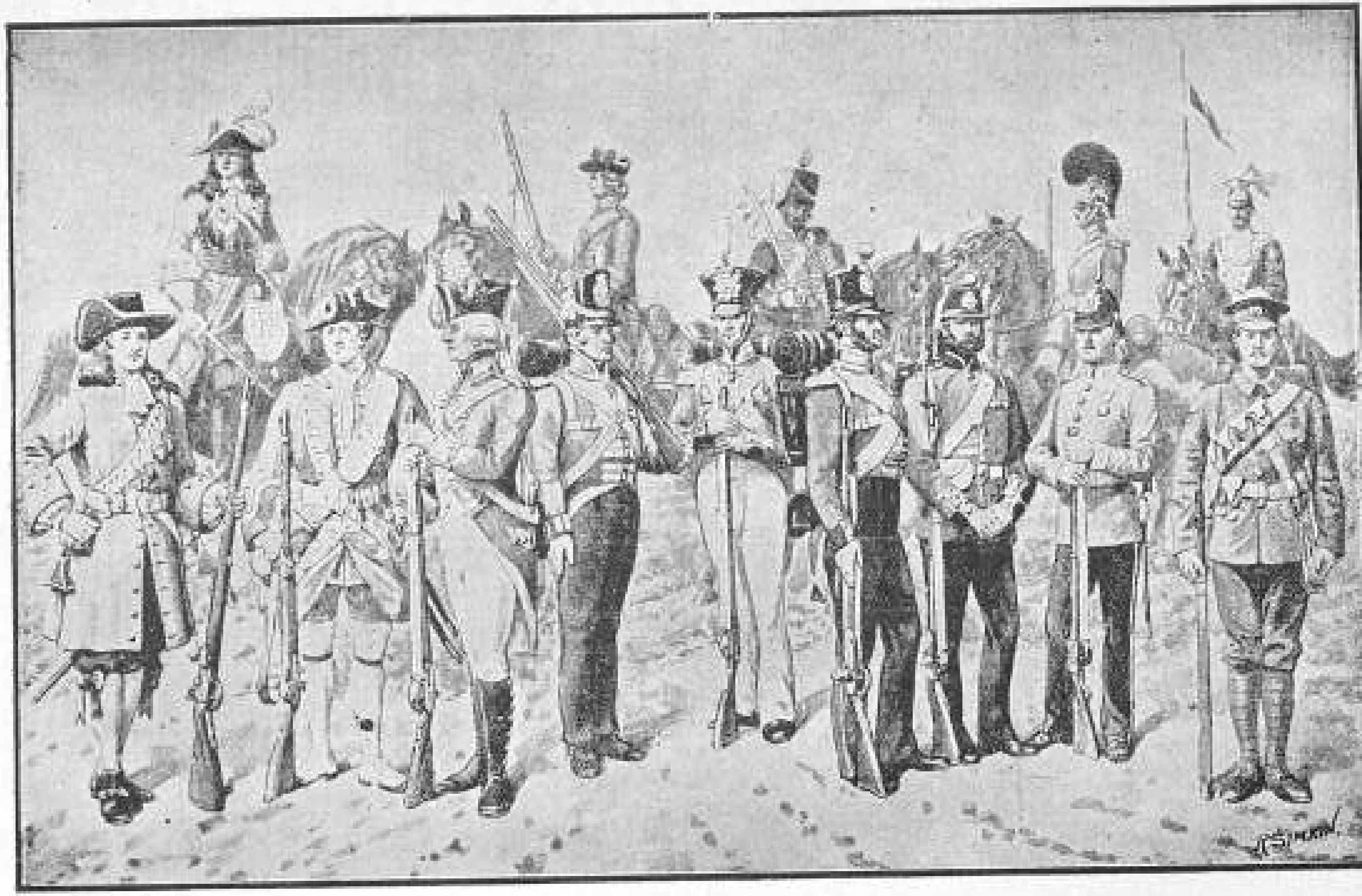
"I look to all my Indian soldiers to uphold the Izzat of the British Raj against an aggressive and relentless enemy. I know with what readiness my brave loyal Indian soldiers are prepared to fulfil this sacred trust shoulder to shoulder with their comrades from all parts of the Empire. Rest assured that you will always be in my thoughts and prayers. I bid you go forward and add fresh lustre to the glorious achievements and noble traditions of courage and chivalry of my Indian Army whose honour and fame is in your hands."

SIR JOHN FRENCH.

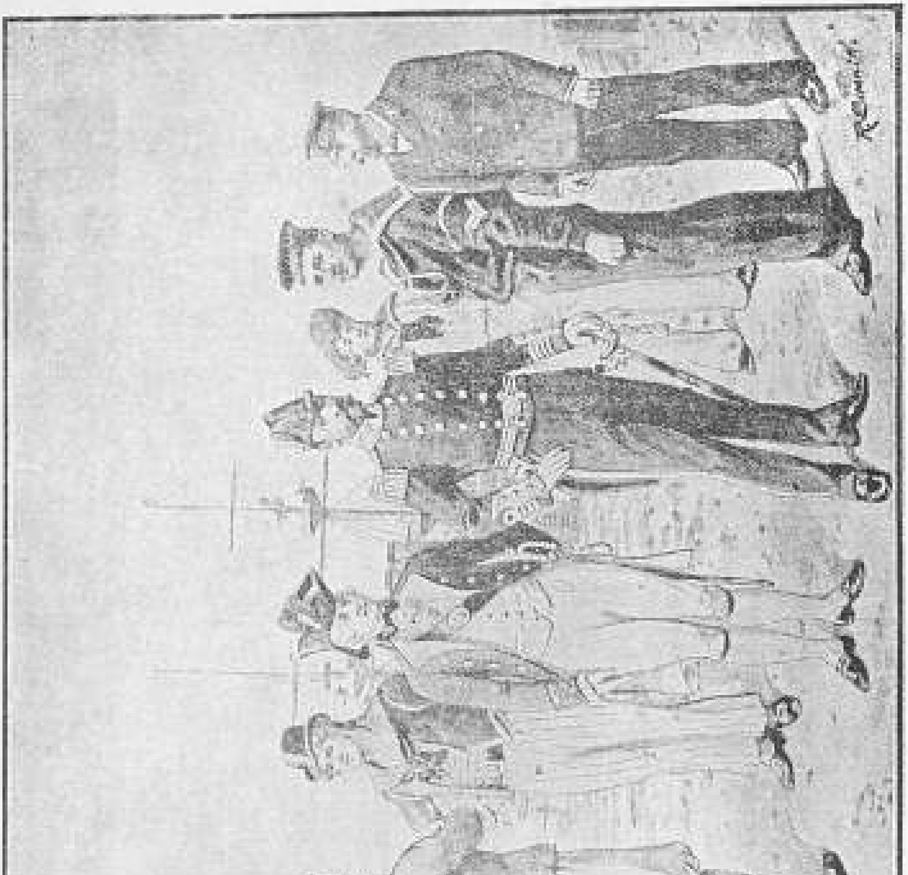
"One of the outstanding features of this, as of every action fought by the Indian Corps, is the stirring record of the comradeship in arms which exists between British and Indian soldiers. . . . . . . The Indian troops have fought with utmost steadfastness and gallantry whenever they have been called upon. . . . . . At their own particular request, they have taken their turn in the trenches and performed most useful and valuable service."

LORD HALDANE.

"Indian soldiers were fighting for the liberties of humanity as much as we ourselves. India had freely given her lives and treasure in humanity's great cause; hence things could not be left as they were. We had been thrown together in this mighty struggle and had been made to realize our oneness, so producing relations between India and England which did not exist before. One victory would be a victory for the Empire as a whole and could not fail to raise it to a higher level."



BRITISH MILITARY UNIFORM.



BRITISH NAVAL UNIFORM.

THE NAVIES OF THE POWERS.

THE BRITISH NAVY.

THE British Navy consists of the following classes and number of ships, including those laid down and under construction :—

First Class Battleships	32
Second-Class Battleships	10
Third-Class Battleships	30
Battle Cruisers	9
Armoured Cruisers (old type)	34
First Class Cruisers	16
Modern Light Cruisers	50
Modern Destroyers	162
Modern Torpedo-Boats	36
Submarines	91
(Men, including Reserves	208,900)

These ten types of the British Navy have, however, been undergoing considerable simplification. And for all modern purposes, and for purposes of all new construction, ships of war have been reduced to five categories only,—*battleships, battle-cruisers, cruisers, destroyers and submarines.*

BATTLESHIPS.

The battleship is the most important fighting unit of the whole fleet. All the latest battleships of the Navy of the "*Dreadnought*" type are built since 1906 on what is called the "all-big-gun" principle, all the big guns of such ships being of the same calibre. They carry ten such guns of 12 inch to 13·5 inch calibre, together with sixteen to twenty guns of 4 inch calibre. The *Iron Duke* of the super-Dreadnought type has ten 13·5 inch guns, and sixteen 6 inch guns. The speed of these battleships is 21 knots an hour, and their tonnage varies from 17,000 to 25,000. Their greatest fighting power lies in their guns. The 12 inch gun of 1910 has been increased rapidly to the 14 and 15 inch gun of all present construction ; and even 16 inch guns have been designed. The length of every gun is 45 times its calibre. The weight of a 15 inch gun is 96 tons, and the weight of a shell it fires is 1950 lbs. Its "muzzle energy" is 84,000 foot-tons, *i. e.*, the force of one shot at the muzzle is enough to raise a 7,000 ton ship 12 feet in the air.

Side by side with the advance in the power of the gun has come an increase in the thickness of the *armour*. The armour of the *Dreadnought* type is from ten to twelve inches thick. That of the *Super-Dreadnoughts*, like the *Iron Duke*, fourteen inches thick. With the increase in the power of the gun and the armour, the power of the *Torpedo* has also been increased.

CRUISERS.

With the increase in ranges an increase in speed has followed. The speed of the battleship has been raised from 18 to 21 knots. And a special class of battleships has been built for discharging duties requiring higher speed. These are known as *battle-cruisers*. They are not as big as the battleship, nor as small as the ordinary cruiser, but partake of both the strength of the one, and the speed of the other. The speed of a battle-cruiser is from 25 to 30 knots. The battle-cruiser is thus a development of the old heavy-type *armoured-cruiser*, which in itself was a development of the *protected-cruiser*, all of which could be regarded as fast battleships.—The *cruiser* proper has little fighting functions. It is divided into two classes : (1) the Flotilla Cruiser ("scout") used for scouting purposes, and (2) the patrolling and policing cruiser, for patrolling and policing work.

TORPEDO-BOATS AND DESTROYERS.

The functions of these two types are more to act as "mosquitoes," and harass the enemy, than to do any actual fighting work. The French for sometime built a great many *torpedo-boats*, and the Germans also built a large craft. This was met by the British construction of *Destroyers*, vessels of a larger and faster type, which could both destroy torpedo-boats and also act as "mosquitoes" themselves. They carry torpedoes as well as light quick-firing guns. And they act as "scouts" and also take the offensive against small craft. *Destroyers* are of two types: (1) the "*Ocean-going*" destroyer for work with the fleet at sea ; and (2) the "*river-type*" destroyer for coast defence. The new torpedo boats of the British Navy are more of the type of coastal destroyers than that of the old torpedo-boats.

SUBMARINES.

The function of the submarine is scouting as well as attacking, being fitted with torpedo-firing tubes. Its concealed movements enables it both to scout and attack the enemy.

AIRCRAFT.

The aerial branch of the Navy has been very largely developed in the last two years. The number of sea-planes and aeroplanes early this year was 75. The Navy has ten airships.

The British Navy is divided into "fleets." There are three "Home fleets," one "Mediterranean fleet," and one "Eastern fleet." A fleet usually consists of the following ships:—

Battle squadrons of 8 ships each. Cruiser squadrons of 8 ships each. Destroyer flotillas of 22 ships each. Mine-layers and sweepers. Attached cruisers. Depot ships. Submarines.

The distribution and composition of the British fleets in the beginning of this year was as follows:—

Fleet or Squadron.	Battleships. Class.			Battle-Cruisers.	Cruisers.	Light Cruisers.	Destroyers.	Torpedo-boats.	Submarines.	Others.	Total.
	1	2	3								
HOME FLEET:											
First Fleet.											
Flagship ..	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	8	10
1st Squadron ..	8	0	0	3	0	5	20	0	0	2	38
2nd Squadron ..	8	0	0	0	4	2	19	0	0	2	35
3rd Squadron ..	1	7	0	0	4	2	16	0	0	1	31
4th Squadron ..	1	3	1	0	3	1	24	0	0	1	34
Second Fleet.											
5th Squadron ..	0	0	8	0	2	5	0	0	0	7	22
6th Squadron ..	0	0	4	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	8
Third Fleet.											
7th Squadron ..	0	0	8	0	27 (7th and 8th)	1	0	0	0	0	36
8th Squadron ..	0	0	6	0		1	0	0	0	0	7
Patrol Flotillas ..	0	0	0	0	0	4	64	24	0	4	96
Submarines ..	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	52	11	64
Home Port Flotillas ..	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	60	7	2	91
Mediterranean Fleet ..	0	0	0	3	4	4	10	0	0	2	23
EASTERN FLEET;											
East Indies Squardon ..	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	4	8
China Squardon ..	0	0	0	0	3	3	8	0	0	16	30
Australian Squadron ..	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	4
Cape of Good Hope Fleet ..	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
Other services ..	0	0	1	1	2	5	0	0	0	13	22
Grand Total ..	19	10	29	7	52	43	185	84	59	74	562

The three *Home Fleets* are based on Cromarty, Rosyth and Portland. The 4th squadron of the First Home Fleet is, however, based on Gibraltar, whence it could operate both in the Mediterranean and in the channel. The First Home Fleet is always on a war footing. The Second Home Fleet is usually on the "nucleus crew" footing, *i.e.*, only needing drafts from the Naval barracks to be brought up to full war strength. The Third Home Fleet is usually on a lower "nucleus crew" footing which could be brought up to war strength by drafts from the "Immediate Reserve" which was formed two years ago.

The greater part of the *Mediterranean Fleet* was withdrawn from that sea two years ago, and added to the Home Fleets.

The *Eastern Fleet* consists of the *East Indies, China* and *Australian* squadrons.

The *East India Station* includes the Persian Gulf, the Northern Indian Ocean, and the Bay of Bengal.

The *China Station* extends from Singapore to the west of Japan and includes the East Indies, the China Sea and New Zealand.

The *Australian Station* includes the Australian and South-east New Guinea waters, but not New Zealand.

The *Cape of Good Hope Station* extends along the African coast from Madagascar and Seychelles in the East to St. Helena and Great Fish Bay in the West.

None of the Eastern squadrons except the China squadron possesses more than one vessel of any great power. No Battleships or Battle-cruisers are included, except one third-class Battleship in the East Indian squadron.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE NAVY.

The general direction and supervision of the whole Navy is in the hands of the First Lord of the Admiralty who is a member of the Cabinet and is responsible to the Crown and to Parliament for all its affairs. He is assisted by a Board (known as the "Admiralty Board") consisting of four Naval Lords and two Civil Lords.

The whole administration of the Navy is carried on by the members of the Board superintending and directing the various and independent branches of the Service, under the general direction and responsibility of the First Lord of the Admiralty.

THE FRENCH NAVY.

THE head of the French Navy is the Minister of Marine who is a member of the French Cabinet. The administration of the French Navy was reorganised in September last year when a Council of Admiralty was established with functions similar to the British Admiralty Board. The Council consists of four professional members with the Minister as the President. Each of these four members is responsible for the administration of certain departments of the Navy. For purposes of administration the coasts of France are divided into five maritime divisions. At the head of each of these divisions is a Vice-Admiral who is responsible for the administration of the port, and the defences of the coast both on land and sea.

The main strength of the French Navy is in the Mediterranean. In the English Channel there are also three armoured cruisers with torpedo and submarine flotillas. There is a squadron in the Far East and in French Cochin-China.

The French Navy is manned partly by conscription and partly by voluntary enlistment. There is an "Inscription Maritime" (introduced by Colbert in 1683) which contains the names of all male members of the seafaring population between the ages of 18 and 50. The periods of service in the Navy for those whose names are on the "Inscription" is the same as that in the army, with similar co ditions of reserve training. Conscripts liable for military service may also volunteer for the Navy if recognised fit for it. The "Inscription" furnishes about 50,000 more men than are required by the Navy on mobilization. The number of officers and men serving in the Navy last year was 63,596. The number of the Reserves was 49,300. The Naval estimates voted for the present year amounted to £19,000,000.

The total strength of the French Navy early this year was as follows:—

Battleships.	
Dreadnought Type	7
Pre-Dreadnought	21
Battle Cruisers	0
Armoured Cruisers	19
Protected Cruisers	12
Torpedo-Gunboats	7
Destroyers	87
Torpedo-Boats	159
Submarines	73

THE GERMAN NAVY.

By the constitution of 1871 the organisation and composition of the Navy is determined by the Emperor who makes all the appointments. All the officers and men take the oath of allegiance to him personally. The Emperor's power over the Navy is extraordinarily great, subject only to the provisions of various Imperial laws passed by the "Reichstag" chiefly concerning the money supplies.

The actual direction and organisation of the Navy is entrusted to three main departments :

1. The *Imperial Navy Office* under the Naval Secretary of State, which has charge of all matters relating to the equipment and personnel of the Navy, and the expenditure voted for the service.
2. *The Naval Cabinet*, is concerned with matters of appointment and promotion of officers.
3. *The Admiral Staff of the Navy*, which is an advisory body, something like the British Admiralty Board.

The ships of the German Navy are distributed between the Baltic and North Sea Stations. The principal Naval establishments are at Kiel on the Baltic and at Wilhelmshaven on the North Sea. The Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, however, makes it possible for either of the fleets to act in either Sea.

The Navy is manned by (1) conscripts, (2) "one year volunteers", (3) "three year volunteers", and (4) cadets. The conscripts are taken after the age of 20, just as they are in the case of the Army. One year volunteers enter after 18, and the three year volunteers after 17. Cadets join between 15 and 18, and are engaged for 9 years. The lower officers of the Navy are as a rule drawn from the ranks of trained cadets. The total number of officers and men serving in the German Navy is 73,000. There is a reserve of 110,000. The expenditure on the Navy in the year 1913-14 was £24 millions.

The following is a list of the classes and numbers of ships in the German Navy :—

Battleships ;	
Dreadnought type ..	16
Pre-Dreadnought type ..	21
Old and Coast Service .	9
Battle Cruisers	5
Armoured Cruisers	9
Cruisers	38
Torpedo Boats	47
Destroyers	152
Submarines	40
Seaplanes	50

THE RUSSIAN NAVY.

THE head of the Russian Navy is the Minister of Marine who controls and directs all the business of Naval administration, which is distributed over 12 different departments, like the Department of Construction, the Technical Department, the Intelligence Department and such others. He is assisted by an "Admiralty Council" which consists of the Assistant Minister of Marine and five Flag Officers. There is in addition, under him, a Naval Headquarters' Staff the Chief of which is responsible for the training, organisation and efficiency of the personnel, and the distribution of the ships of the Navy.

The men are recruited by conscription, and while on the active list are not allowed to marry. The number of men is fixed by law every year. In 1913 it was about 53,000. The naval estimates for 1914 amounted to £25,000,000.

Owing to the geographical position of the country with its far-separated seas, Russia has to keep four district fleets or flotillas each with its own organisation. The most important of these is the Baltic Fleet, the base of which is at Kronstadt, a very strongly fortified place. The Gulf of Finland is, however, usually blocked by ice from November to April. A new ice-free port has, therefore, been prepared at Libau more towards the south in the Baltic. The second Fleet is in the Black sea, and is based on Sevastopol, which has also been strongly fortified. The third Fleet consists of a Flotilla in the Caspian Sea, for protecting the Trans-Caspian Railway to Turkestan, and the sea-route to Persia. The Fourth Fleet is in the Pacific, based on Vladivostock.

The strength of the Navy is as follows :—

Battleships :	
Dreadnought Type	4
Pre-Dreadnought Type	5
Coast-Defence Ship	1
Armoured Cruisers	6
Protected Cruisers	8
Torpedo Vessels	3
Destroyers	96
Torpedo-Boats	26
Submarines	29

THE JAPANESE NAVY.

THE Japanese Navy is under the control of a Minister of Marine assisted by a Vice-Minister. The administration and organisation of the Navy is distributed over twelve different departments. There is also a Board of Admirals which is a committee of advice.

The Coast of Japan is divided into five maritime districts. Japan now builds and equips her own warships. There are large armour factories at Kure. The personnel of the Navy consists of 5,000 officers and 45,000 men, with a small reserve of about 6,000. Service in the Navy is universal and compulsory, as in the Army. The Mikado is the head and supreme commander of the Navy. The expenditure on the Navy last year was 42 million Yen or about £4,000,000.

The strength of the Japanese Navy is as follows:—

Battleships:	
Dreadnought Type	4
Pre-Dreadnought Type	16
Armoured Cruisers	13
Protected Cruisers: 1st class	3
Do. 2nd class	13
Do. 3rd class	4
Unprotected Cruisers (Scouts)	4
Destroyers	50
Torpedo-Boats: New	25
Do. Old	32
Torpedo Vessels	3
Submarines	13

THE AUSTRIAN NAVY.

The head of the Austro-Hungarian Navy is the common Minister of War, and its administration is entrusted to the Naval Department of the common War Office. The number of all ranks in the Navy including reserves is about 36,000. The naval estimates for 1913 amounted to £ 6,000,000. The head-quarter, of the fleet is at Pola, and there are various other smaller establishments on the Dalmatian coast. There is also a flotilla of monitors on the Danube.

The strength of the Navy is as follows:—

Battleships:	
Dreadnought Type	4
Pre-Dreadnought Type	12
Armoured Cruisers	3
Cruisers	9
Torpedo-Gunboats	7
Destroyers	18
Torpedo-Boats	63
Submarines	8

The Latest Naval Improvements.

THE BATTLE-SHIP

THE Battle-ship is a mighty instrument of war, and forms the chief unit in the fighting fleet of any nation. It is most heavily protected and armed, as it has to resist (1) heavy gun fire, (2) a torpedo or mine attack and (3) possibly ramming.

To protect her against gunfire, the ship's sides and protective decks are heavily armoured. Again, the coal-fuel carried by the vessel is so disposed above and below the protective deck as to further shield the vital parts of the ship against any shells which may pierce the hull. The rudder, so necessary for manœuvring the ship during action is fixed below the water line to save it from damage. The armour belt resting on the protective deck is carried about five feet below water in order that no serious results may issue if the vessel receives a shot below the water line when it is rolling or pitching. For protection against torpedoes and mines the ship is provided with an inner skin, forming a double bottom and double sides. For detective purposes powerful search-lights are carried, and the vessel is provided with net defence and smaller armament for dealing with torpedo boat attacks.

The amount of woodwork employed is reduced to a minimum to obviate risks of fire breaking out during action. The decks are of cuticine, and the cabin, bulk heads, fittings, store rooms, etc., are usually of sheet steel.

Communication to the important parts of the vessel is by means of telephone installed therein.

The above is a brief statement of the prominent features of a battle-ship, and we shall now proceed to describe the *Dreadnought* which heralded a great advance in battle-ship design, and whose advent has contributed so much towards the revolution of the views held by the Great Powers as to the requirement of naval warfare. We take the following description from Albert G. Hood's article on battleships:—

"The dreadnought is 490 ft. long between perpendiculars, by 82 ft. broad and draws 26½ ft. of water at a displacement of 17,900 tons. Her Parson's turbine engines drive four screws, take steam from Badcock and Wilcock's water-tube boilers and indicate 23,000 horse power under natural draught. The designed speed of 21 knots was exceeded slightly on the trials. The armament consists of ten 12 inch guns 24 Q. F. anti-torpedo boat guns and 5 submerged torpedo tubes. Thus the

dreadnought is an all-big-gun ship, or in other words, she carries no 6-inch or other intermediate guns such as were usually fitted in the earlier battle-ships. The advantages and draw-backs of the all-big-gun arrangement have been much discussed in Naval circles, many contending that it is not wise to substitute heavy 12 inch weapons for the equivalent weight of intermediate guns; that the fact that more than one of the great Naval Powers in their latest ships have followed the dreadnought lead is not without significance."

The Dreadnought's main armour belt is 11 inches thick, tapering down to 6 inches and 4 inches to the forward and after extremities of the vessel respectively. The protective deck is from 1¾ inches to 2¾ inches thick. Special provision is made to safeguard the vessel from destruction by under-water explosion. The transverse bulkheads below the main deck, which is 9 feet above the water-line have no doors, and access to the various compartments is therefore by lifts and other special arrangements.

As regards speed, the Dreadnought is capable of steaming at 21 knots an hour.

The vessel is fitted with turbine machinery as it resulted in saving in weight and in the number of working parts. In addition, there was the saving in coal consumption, engine and boiler room space. Further the liability to break down was reduced, and the engines could be placed lower in the ship thereby affording increased protection.

The cost of the Dreadnought is about £ 1,813,000.

The Dreadnought, however, was not a complete revolution in battleship design. She represented a perfection of battleship design reflecting unusual credit on the British constructive department. She was the embodiment of simplicity, fighting efficiency, and a remarkable instance of all round development of type. Owing, however, to the rapid building programme and competition of the other great powers—chiefly Germany—the British admiralty has since put down much heavier types. The "Queen Elizabeth" is the latest and is in a distinct class of her own. She has a displacement of 27,500 tons and a speed of 25 knots. Her armament consists of eight 15 inch guns and six 16 inch guns.

The principles obtaining in Naval Circles which have revolted in the laying down of big ships with greater speed and heavier armament are the following:—Present day tactics demand a huge size and each unit in a fighting fleet should possess the maximum of force, that is to say a maximum of speed combined with strong armour, uniform armament and as many of the heaviest calibre guns as possible, so as, to enable the unit to fight the decisive action at a distance. The superiority of the guns over the armour and the increased range of the torpedoes render an action at close quarter most dangerous. This principle of fighting at a distance enables to reduce the strength of armour in the ship and the saving in weight effected thereby to be used for armament, speed, and radius of action. Heavier armament and greater speed mean increased offensive and preservation power.

The modern battle-ships are provided in addition to guns of the heaviest calibre with guns of medium and light calibre also. The medium artillery are employed against minor targets like the small cruiser and land defences; as also against torpedo boats. The light guns are an auxiliary to the meduim artillery and are useful for torpedo defence by night.

Besides the guns of the calibres referred to above, the modern battle-ship is equipped with torpedo tubes as well. These latter are placed below the water line.

THE CRUISER

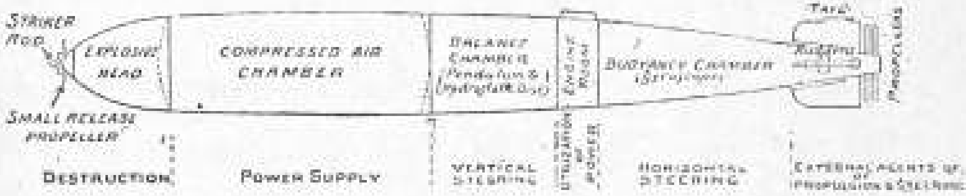
The Cruiser is an auxiliary to the Armour clad battle-ship. It is intended for co-operating with the main fleet which consists of Battle-ships only. In addition, its other chief work is to protect the Trade routes. The essential features of the Cruiser are, "great speed, protection without the use of side armour, a powerful armament, and minimum size and cost." It was at first a battle-ship on a small scale. An improvement gave rise to a class known as the "protected Cruiser." The latter is "a vessel with the machinery and other vital parts covered with a thick armoured deck, minute water tight sub-division, and coal bunkers so arranged as to give the maximum side protection." This type is essentially a torpedo boat destroyer and is provided with quick firing guns of medium and small calibres.

The next step was the "armoured Cruiser" commenced with the building of the Cressy type for the British Navy. Three of these were recently torpedoed and sunk in the North Sea by the Germans. The latest types of British armoured Cruisers are as long as 530 feet with a displacement of 17,250 tons and a speed of 25 knots. The armament consists of eight 12 inch guns, sixteen 4 inch guns, anti-torpedo weapons and sub-merged torpedo tubes.

THE TORPEDO

To the layman the next most interesting class, after the battleship, is the torpedo craft. The history of the torpedo boat goes as far back as 1876. Its armament consists of torpedo tubes and very small guns—but its essential feature is high speed. To a battle-ship a torpedo is a force to be reckoned with.

A torpedo appears like a steel cigar 16 ft. 8 in. long and having a diameter at its widest part of 18 inches. At the apex of its blunted nose a small sharp-bladed propeller is carried. Guide flanges are fixed in the hull for two-thirds of its length, and at the tail end are twin-propellers *in tandem* revolving on separate shafts.



SECTIONAL VIEW OF TORPEDO.

In addition the torpedo is provided with horizontal and vertical rudders which enable it to maintain its depth and direction after launching. The torpedo weighs about 1230 lbs. and its speed is about 30½ knots. The charge of dry explosive accommodated in the nose is about 180 lbs. The cost of the torpedo varies with the type and is from £ 200 to 500.

Mr. Alan H. Burgoyne in his sketch of the "Torpedoes" says:—

"We discover six distinct and separate parts. Beginning from the nose, these are named as follows; (1) the head, (2) the air chamber, (3) the balance chamber, (4) the engine room, (5) the buoyancy chamber, (6) the tail and propellers. In times of peace the torpedo is fitted for practice purposes with what is called a "collision head" made of thin copper and filled with water up to a weight equalling that of the "war-head."

In these practices in indicating light, the Holmes light is so placed inside the torpedo that, when the head collapses against an obstacle, the influx of water causes an immediate display of smoke and flame, making it a fairly easy business to trace the projectile for recovery by night or by day.

Torpedoes are fired in two positions—from submerged tubes and from deck tubes. These tubes are similar in principle to guns, but, having nearly to throw the torpedo clear of the ship's side do not need the strength possessed by guns. The firing of torpedoes is accomplished either by a small charge of powder or by compressed air. When fired above water the torpedo takes to its elements almost parallel to the surface though the method of its discharge usually tends to lower the nose a trifle below the tail. In under-water discharge, if the ship firing the torpedo is in motion, a steel slide is pushed out from the side in such a manner that the torpedo, when fired, shall not be affected by the rush of the water along the vessel's hull. Torpedoes would not be fired from submerged tubes at speeds exceeding 16 knots, and 14 knots is the maximum generally accepted to-day. The torpedoes employed by other nations are all derived from the Whitehead, though they have been given different names. We may appreciate with satisfaction, however, that, in the matter of torpedo evolution along progressive lines Great Britain stands easily first to-day."

The modern torpedo has developed into a weapon of immense importance. Its speed and range have been increased, and weight added to the explosive mixture. It is built so as to cut through the torpedo net of a battle-ship without exploding, which latter happens only when striking against the body of the ship. The British Naval authorities are trying to lengthen the torpedo so as to increase its range and speed. It is reported that a range of 9,000 metres was attained by a recently constructed torpedo in England.

SUBMARINE MINE.

SUBMARINE Mines are of two classes. (1) Controllable and (2) Uncontrollable.

In the Controllable Mines, Electricity is used as the firing agent—the controllable mines are again divided into two classes (a) observation mines and (b) the "Circuit Closer" or C. C. mine.

Observation Mines are fired by moving a switch on shore. They depend for their successful operation on very careful observations by the operator on shore not only of the exact positions of the mines in the mine fields, but also of the route of the hostile vessels passing over these fields. When the latter vessels are seen to be crossing the site of a mine, the operator on shore closes a switch and fires the mine. They are placed either resting on the bottom, or, are anchored down well below surface so as not to endanger the passage of friendly ships and are harmless, so long as the observer on shore does not move the switch. These mines are however, useless when a dense fog or mist prevails.

The "Crisuit Closer" or C. C. mine contains a small piece of apparatus which is set in action if a vessel infringes on it. When set in action this apparatus completes an electric circuit in the mine through which it is fired by closing the main switch on shore. Such mines are placed near the surface and do interfere with traffic, but can be left inactive and harmless by the movement of a switch on shore. The advantage of this class of mines is that they are effective in fog or mist when the observation mines and the guns of defence would both be *hors de combat*.

The explosive, most in vogue, is wet gun cotton with a small dry primer and detonator to start ignition. The charge is enlosed in a steel mine-case which has an "apparatus" inside, containing the electrical arrangements and the "circuit closer" when used.

In the uncontrollable or mechanical mines, the means of firing, which is also often electric, is sustained in the mine itself. The source of power is either a small battery contained in the mine, or a spring or a suspended weight. In all these cases, these mines explode immediately in being infringed by a moving object. These mines once set for firing and strewn in the sea are alike dangerous to friend and foe. They may be held in position by a weight or allowed to drift about.

SUBMARINE BOAT.

THE Submarine is an under water craft and owes its development to the necessity for a vessel by means of which torpedo attacks can be carried out in day light. The boat is invisible when submerged and can not only attack in day time, but useful for harbour work at night.

In appearance the submarine looks like a fat cigar tapered towards its tail end. In front a close fitting cap encloses a torpedo tube. In the centre from the top of the hull rises a small conning tower. The propeller, and rudders for horizontal and vertical steering are fixed at the stern.

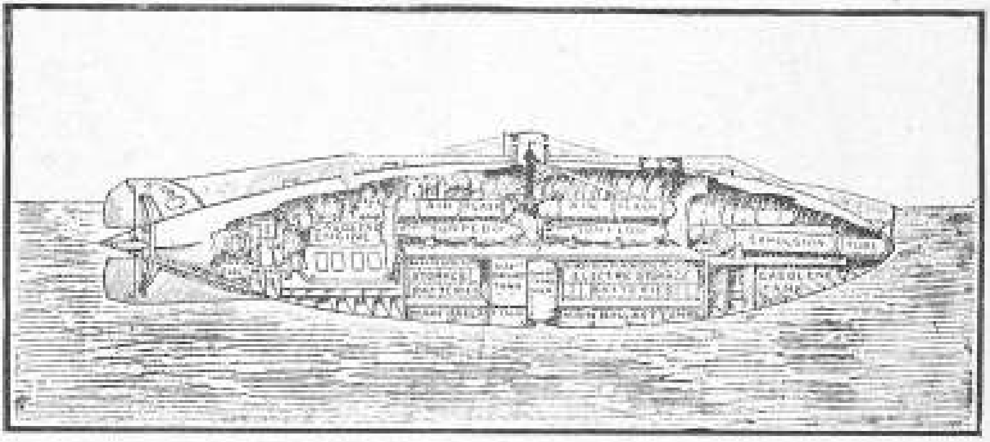
The conning tower is a circular steel tube 4 inch thick, with a clear opening at the top of 21 inches in diameter and made water-tight by a special device. In the wall of this tower are a number of port holes or peep holes fitted with plate glass and sealed with steel sliding covers. These port holes admit of an all round view. In addition to this conning tower which is too narrow to be used as an entrance, there are two sufficiently large hatches to admit machinery parts and torpedoes into the hull. There are no projecting parts on the submarine—a necessary feature to avoid entanglements with ropes, nets or cables.

For surface running, the boat is driven by an Engine of the internal combustion type (Petrol Engine). For running submerged a water-proof Electric Motor is fitted.

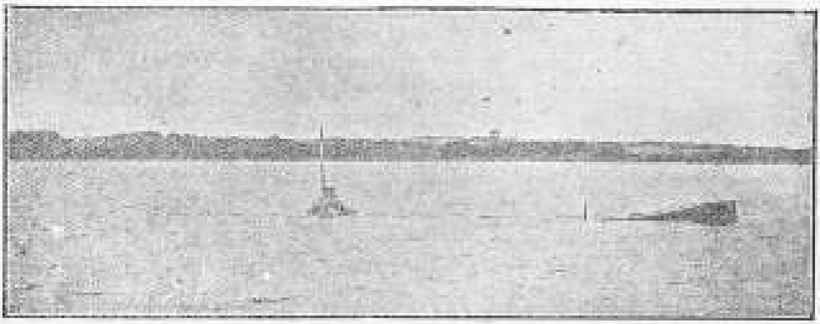
The air supply for various purposes is obtained from an Air Compressor worked by the Electric or Petrol Motor as the conditions require. Air reservoirs are provided, and the air is used, among other things for discharging torpedoes and for emptying the ballast and trimming tanks.

Ventilation is provided for in many ways. "All the air driver machinery exhausts into the interior of the ship." Excess of air pressure within the boat is relieved through special safety valves. Ventilators, and electric fans are installed over the engine and at other suitable points. To quote from Alan Burgoyne's description of the submarine:—

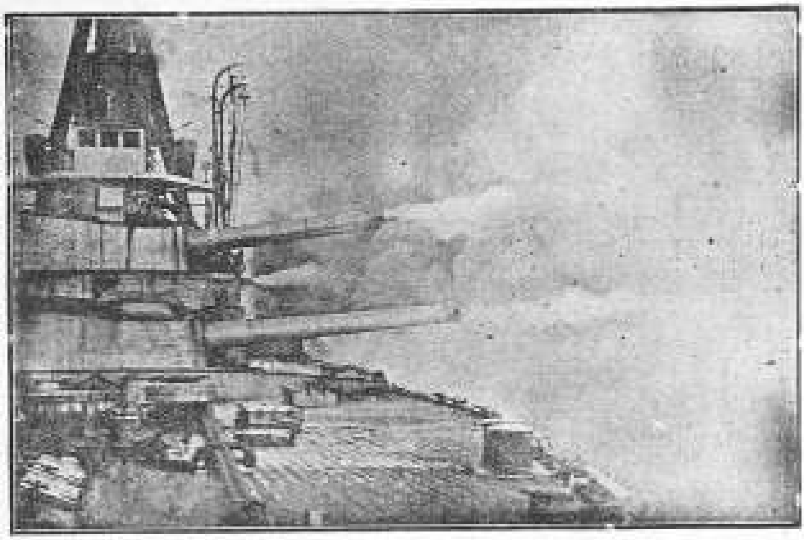
"A submarine must be provided with many gauges, and with instruments to record accurately the depth, amount of ballast, gasoline and air pressure, "taim" and "stability" of the boat at any particular moment."



INTERIOR SUBMARINE.



GERMAN SUBMARINE.



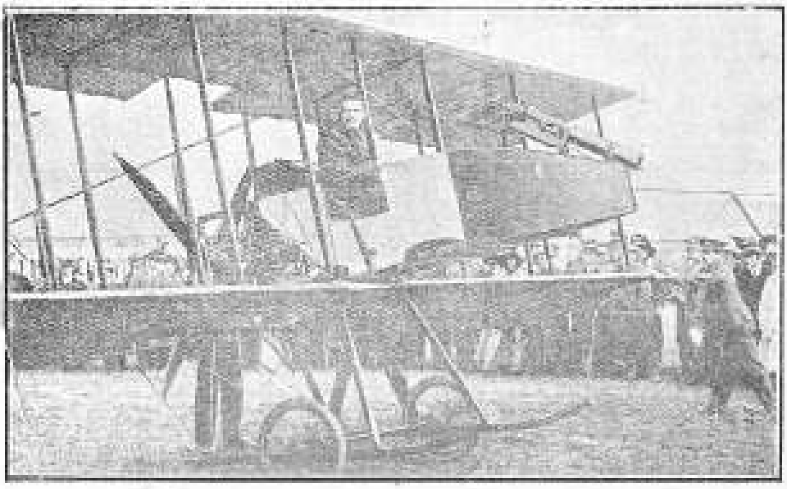
A FULL BROADSIDE FROM A DREADNOUGHT.

This remarkable photograph shows one of the heaviest Broadsides ever discharged from a Battleship. The simultaneous firing from the 12-inch guns of 850-pound Projectiles, aggregating 500,000 foot-tons, was a unique test upon the vessel's construction. The picture shows the vibration, but not that the battleship was lifted 26 ft. into the air.

From the "World's Work."

ONE OF THE FASTEST WAR VESSELS AFLOAT.

H.M.S. *Tartar* (torpedo boat destroyer) steaming at $34\frac{1}{2}$ knots (38 miles) an hour.

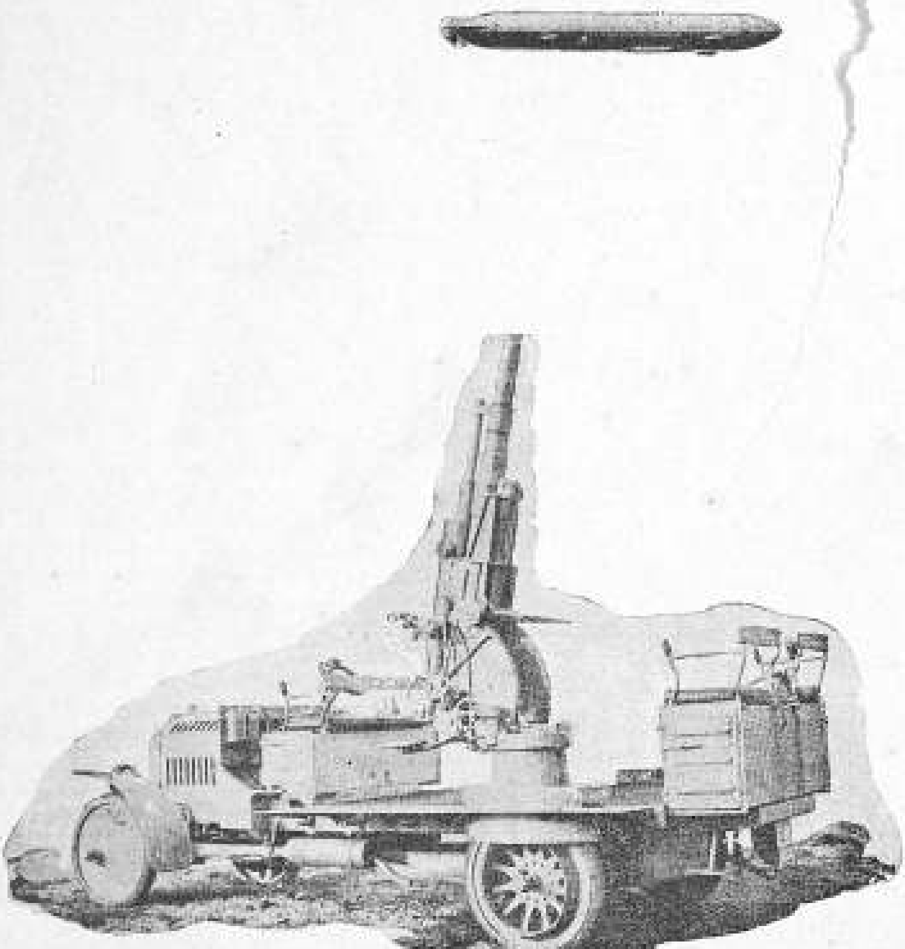


A BRITISH AEROPLANE WITH A QUICK-FIRING GUN.

THE AIR-FIGHTERS OF THE FUTURE.

The picture shows how the French aviators prepare to fight their country's battles. The machine is a biplane and carries two men, the aviator appearing at the left.

From the "Outlook."



ONE OF KRUPP'S GUNS TO SHOOT AIRSHIPS.

THE HORSE AND WAR.

WHILE the expansion of mechanical transport has largely reduced the number of horses required for the transport service of the army, a corresponding expansion in civilian life has largely decreased the numbers of horses of the omnibus type, which had for many years been our chief source of supply for the Royal Artillery. Further during recent years we have been compelled to realise that Cavalry regiments in the Home army contained a very considerable number of horses which would not be fit for the great strain that would be imposed on them on the outbreak of war. This led to an increase in the establishment of horses to ensure that no animal would be in the ranks on mobilization until he had reached 6 years of age. Since the outbreak of war a very large number of horses have been required for the army, very many more indeed than our mobilization problem ever provided for, owing to the enormous expansion of our forces, particularly the Artillery branch. The arrangements for mobilization as regards horses were based on the application of the impressment law which permits the State on a national emergency to impress for public service any horse found fit at a price to be settled by the purchasing officer, usually County gentlemen of repute who volunteer their services. Now while the horses required for draught purposes require little training as discipline is inborn, the cavalry troop horse requires a great deal. Thanks to recent additions to the peace establishment of cavalry regiments and the system of boarding out trained horses to private persons under certain conditions, Cavalry regiments were able to mobilize with full complement of trained horses and retain a first reinforcement of about 8 °/₀ when war broke out; while the sections of the Army Horse Reserve were able to supply the horses required for the Artillery and Transport Units. On mobilization reserve units of the various mounted branches were formed for the purpose of training drafts of men and horses for the troops in the field. These reserve units are filled up from the horses obtained by impressment and they supply the field army units. The remount depots refill the reserve units while the depots are refilled by purchases both in the United Kingdom, and from such oversea places as Australia, Canada and South America, another of the many great advantages which the Command of the sea confers on us. Reviewing the situation generally the system resulted in placing within a fortnight of the order to mobilise 36,000 horses in the Expeditionary Force, 80,000 for the Territorial forces and 18,000 for the reserve formations.

Now it is a vital axiom that the efficiency of any body of mounted troops on service depends first and foremost on the condition of each horse. Just as the health and feeding of the soldier has the greatest care paid to it, so it is essential that the horse be carefully looked after. There is no more willing or sagacious animal than the horse and on his well-being may depend not merely the life of his rider or the safety of a gun, but possibly the security of the whole army. Hence the importance of being a good horsemaster cannot be too frequently impressed on the mind of every recruit from the moment he joins, and he is trained to keep his horse effective under all circumstances on service.

As a rule the life of a horse in the field is extremely hard and the percentage of casualties large.

So far this article has dealt with the supply of horses to the army in the field before and after mobilization. Since the history of the horse in war is largely the history of its rider and as the characteristic of Cavalry is the action of the man and horse combined, the subject will best be continued by generally considering the employment of Cavalry in the field. One of the most important lessons which a Cavalry have to learn is how best to economize the power of their horses, and while understanding how to use this power to the utmost when occasion demands, recognise and practise how to spare it in every possible way at other times.

Cavalry in the field are divided into two main parts, the strategical or independent cavalry, and what may be termed the protective cavalry. The roll of the first named is to obtain accurate information as regards the disposition, strength and direction of march of the hostile forces, which may possibly entail the defeat of the hostile cavalry as a prelude to obtaining the sought-for information. The second body, or protective cavalry covers and protects, as its name indicates, the movements of the main columns and is usually placed under the orders of subordinate Commanders, whereas the independent cavalry receives orders direct from the Commander-in-Chief. Now between the

close of the Boer war and the outbreak of the present European war a great tendency was observed to cultivate an idea that the day of cavalry was past, and that its modern counterpart was to be found in what was termed the "mounted rifleman." It is extremely lucky for us that our foremost cavalry leaders were strong enough to combat with some large measure of success, if not to entirely eradicate this fatal idea. Stubborn as was the fight put up by our infantry divisions in the retreat from Mons, we have even to a larger extent to thank the magnificent training and glorious self-sacrifice of our cavalry and horse artillery for a successful issue from a dangerous position. If during recent weeks our Cavalry have found little scope for mounted action, this has been on account of the severity of the winter and the flooding of S. W. Belgium. Meanwhile they have often taken the place of infantry in the trenches with marked success, notably during those October days before Ypres in support of the 7th Division. When the spring comes and in the plains in the S. E. of Belgium all cavalry men hold that what Frederick the Great said 150 years ago that "in war success largely depends on the superiority of one's cavalry" will prove its truth. For has it not already been evident that the allied Cavalry have established a personal ascendency over the Germans?

Cavalry are the eyes and ears of an army assisted in these modern days by the aviation corps. Reconnaissance is the most important of a cavalry soldier's individual duties and requires much careful training and a great deal of zeal and intelligence from the man. Reconnaissance is of two kinds, strategical and tactical. The first named avoids all fighting, requires considerable cunning and stratagem and is as a rule directed against the probable lines of advance of the enemy. Tactical patrols devote their attention to getting in touch with and collecting information about the hostile cavalry, and to carry out this, will probably have to fight. Briefly then in the advance to the battlefield and the preparatory phase the two main duties of cavalry are to afford the maximum of information and to give protection, the two duties being distinctly separated and entrusted to distinct bodies of cavalry.

Such duties will have naturally made considerable demands on the strength and energy of horse and man alike, and it is here that good horsemastership tells. As the action now begins to develop the mounted troops are gradually drawn in. The efforts which either a retreat or a pursuit calls for from horses are very severe, and whenever possible during the battle, opportunities must be seized to feed, water, and rest them. The pursuit which is the only means by which the real fruits of victory can be garnered is the special duty of cavalry, and it makes heavy demands on the horses. The greatest effort must be put forward to turn the enemies' defeat into a rout, and the pursuit must therefore be kept up day and night without regard to men or horses. To do this it is manifestly essential that cavalry during a battle must avoid all action of a secondary nature so as to enter on the crisis of the battle fresh and vigorous. In retreat similarly vigorous action but of a far more self-sacrificing nature is demanded of the cavalry. History provides many examples of this splendid spirit of self-sacrifice on the part of cavalry, but one need only turn to the gallant conduct of our own 1st Cavalry Division during the retreat from Mons, to the charge of the 9th Lancers or of the Scots Greys at St. Quentin to realise the splendid spirit which is the birthright they inherit from that irresistible mailed cavalry which once hammered the Scots and humbled France. Lastly let us glance briefly at the system of attending casualties amongst horses in the field.

The Army Veterinary Service is organised with the view of securing the efficiency of horses in the field:

(1) by preventing the introduction and spread of contagious disease.

(2) by means of first aid in the case of casualties,

(3) by taking over the care of sick horses.

Veterinary hospitals are established on the lines of communication to which sick and wounded animals are sent for treatment. Assistance is being afforded to the army veterinary corps by the Society for the prevention of cruelty to animals. During the retreat from Mons and the advance to the Aisne the losses and suffering amongst the horses were great. Latterly except from the effects of weather the wastage in horse flesh has been very light, but when the next advance takes place great efforts will be demanded of the horses. Wounds from high explosive shells suppurate very quickly and the only chance of saving a horse's life is to be able to remove animals quickly to one of the hospitals on the lines of communication and operate on them under chloroform. An effort is now being made to do this by providing one motor ambulance for wounded horses to each division. How much the Army Veterinary Corps have already done may be instanced from the figures of one base-hospital, in which out of 800 sick or wounded horses passing through it in one month, the percentage of deaths was only four.

AIRCRAFT AND MODERN WARFARE

BY. J. W. MADELEY, M.A., M. INST., C.E.

"Aviation is one of the most important subjects to which the modern officer can pay attention at the present day."—SIR JOHN FRENCH.

TYPES OF AIRCRAFT.

Aircraft may be divided into the following types:—

(1) *Airships* which are lighter than air and which may be again sub-divided into :

(a) Rigid, and *(b)* Collapsible.

(2) *Aeroplanes* which are heavier than air and of which there are two types, namely, Monoplane and Biplane.

These types of aircraft are both described in some detail in another article, and here we are only concerned with their effect on war.

COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGES OF AIRSHIPS AND AEROPLANES.

Comparing the aeroplane and the airship for use in war, it may be said that the aeroplane has the following advantages :—

(1) It is much *less costly*.

(2) It possesses greater *speed*. The average speed of a good aeroplane may be taken as 75 miles an hour as compared with 45 miles an hour of a good airship.

(3) The great *ease and rapidity* with which an aeroplane can *manœuvre* as compared with an airship.

(4) The readiness with which an aeroplane can be *taken to pieces*, packed in small compass and transported. For instance, in France I have seen many Bleriot monoplanes running on their own wheels and pulled along by motor cars, their wings being folded along their backs, so that they resembled large dragon flies.

(5) The *rapidity* with which an aeroplane can *rise*. This gives it a great advantage in attacking an airship, as with its superior speed and greater climbing power, it can always get above the airship.

(6) Its comparative *invulnerability*, for an aeroplane may be pierced by hundreds of bullets, and still continue on its flight. On the other hand, an airship is very delicate and readily destroyed.

(7) Its comparative *small size*, when combined with its high speed and power of rapid manœuvring, makes it an exceedingly difficult target to hit as compared with a large airship some 500 feet long and 50 feet in diameter.

The advantages of an airship over an aeroplane are :—

(1) That it can *hover*, that is to say, its engines may be stopped, and it can remain in one position, and carefully study the ground underneath it. It can therefore aim bombs and guns with greater accuracy.

(2) It has a considerably *greater radius of action* than an aeroplane. The radius of action of one of the new large Zeppelins is some 500 miles.

The newest machine can remain in the air for 48 hours at a time.

(3) The *lifting power* is very much greater.

(4) The dirigible has a *large steady platform*, and is therefore most suited for firing from and for transmitting and receiving messages by wireless telegraphy.

USES OF AIRCRAFT IN WARFARE.

Aircraft are used mainly for observation purposes and to a minor extent for attack. Up to the present by far the more important use of aircraft is for observation, of which less is heard than of the more spectacular bomb dropping. As aircraft continue to develop, however, there is little doubt that their offensive powers will be very much increased.

OBSERVATION.

The principal uses of aircraft in observation are to locate and bring back news concerning the numbers, disposition, and composition, of the troops of the enemy, their movements, traffic on railways, and also the disposition of friendly troops. Further, aircraft have become indispensable to artillery which in modern warfare, with its long ranges and carefully concealed positions, would be quite blind without aircraft.

USE WITH OTHER ARMS.

There has been, and for a long time will continue to be, much discussion on the effect of aviation and its employment in conjunction with other arms. In connection with land forces, aviation is most closely allied with cavalry and artillery. Aircraft aid and save cavalry much unnecessary work, and they are able to bring in information very much more rapidly. Under reasonable conditions of weather and country, a commander may within $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours expect a report on the position, approximate strength, formation and direction of movement of the

enemy anywhere within an 80 mile radius. Without aeroplanes, a similar result would take an officer's patrol sent out from the strategic cavalry at least three days, while the prospects of acquiring information would be less, and the information when received by the commander would be much less accurate. Aircraft also assist in the service of inter-communication and co-operation of all arms, and finally it supplements the Telegraph and Telephone service in obtaining news of what is happening during the battle. Thus, aircraft afford a degree of security, save officers, men and horseflesh, and reduce the anxiety and strain of the commander.

HEIGHT DURING RECONNAISSANCE.

The height at which aircraft should fly during reconnaissance depends on the conditions of weather. Experience has shown that anything under 4,000 feet is unsafe from rifle fire, while to be quite safe from modern anti-aircraft guns, it is necessary to maintain an altitude of 8,000 feet. At the same time even at 4,000 feet it is very difficult to see anything in detail. Therefore when a flier is looking for information, he has to take risks. When he has obtained the information, however, he should always ascend to a safe height so as to guard the information he has obtained. Skilled pilots take advantage of clouds for concealment when available.

PILOTS AND OBSERVERS.

In scouting work, it is necessary that every aeroplane should have a pilot to fly the machine, and an observer to record what is seen. There should be means of intercommunication between the two by means of speaking tubes or other similar appliances. Up to the present no very suitable method has been devised. On my own aeroplane I have been able to converse with my passengers, but it requires considerable shouting on account of the noise made by the engine and the rush of wind.

Observers require careful training and practice before they can bring the accurate and complete information.

So important is it to have good observers that Colonel Sykes, Commandant, Military Wing, Royal Flying Corps, considers that the best of staff officers, and as many of them as possible, should be trained and kept in practice as observers. Untrained officers are of no use.

NOTES ON SCOUTING.

The scouting, before the forces come into contact, is generally a matter of observing the enemy's main bodies. When the forces are coming into touch with each other, however, the troops must be observed after they have left the roads; it is then harder to find them, and most difficult to estimate their strength. For observation purposes on these occasions, it is very advisable to have staff officers skilled in the work, who know the latest reports received, to make ascents from time to time.

Having obtained information the greatest value must at once be gained from it, and the aircraft commander must be in constant touch with the general staff. Further, his observers should be placed in full possession of all information already gained and movements intended.

HANDING IN INFORMATION.

The method of handing in information still requires developing. Wireless telegraphy has been successfully used from airships, but not yet from aeroplanes, and considerable development in this direction may be expected in the future. Wireless is of course subject to the disadvantage that messages may be tapped or jammed.

In any case, a great deal depends upon the observer. He has to decide whether he will communicate his information to the forces in the firing line, or to the staff, and also whether he shall land or drop his message. Landing takes more time and in some areas it may be dangerous. On the other hand, a message cannot give the same details as can be done in person after landing. To drop messages, bags are usually employed, but the French have recently developed a method of dropping a cylinder, which on striking the ground causes a light to burn and to indicate its whereabouts. The disadvantage of dropping these cylinders is that they are liable to injure friends.

USE WITH ARTILLERY.

As already stated, aeroplanes have become indispensable to artillery in order to enable the fire director to properly control his fire. Before long it isprobablethat every artillery commander will have his own aeroplanes. A not uncommon plan is for the aeroplane to drop smoke balls immediately over the enemy. These float in the air sufficiently long to enable the range to be taken. The artillery then commences fire at, say, 100 yards short, and gradually increases the range until the aeroplane observer signals that it is correct. In this way, artillery is able to fire at, and strike, invisible targets, and during the present war, largely due to the co-operation of aircraft, artillery has attained an importance which it has not enjoyed since the days of Napoleon.

USE OF AIRCRAFT FOR THE OFFENSIVE.

The advantages possessed by aircraft in attack are obvious. Fortifications are not so well prepared to defend themselves against the attack of aircraft. Again, aircraft can attack the centre of a fort or a city, whereas batteries and other methods of attack have first to destory the perimeter defences. The experience of Paris and Antwerp shows that the Germans are quite capable of dropping explosives on the defenceless inhabitants of any city, to which they can obtain access. And judging by their general policy of striking terror in the hearts of people by inflicting suffering on the defenceless, it is a form of warfare that must be carefully considered. It is satisfactory to note, however, that the Hague Conference of 1907 decided that the bombardment of undefended towns by *any means whatsoever* should be forbidden. But this, though satisfactory as far as it goes, is of little value, unless there is means to enforce the regulation.

The recent air raid by naval officers on the Zeppelin factory at Friedrichshafen furnishes a good example of what may be effected by aeroplanes in offensive work at the present time. The following is the official announcement as made by the Secretary of the Admiralty through the Press Bureau :—

"On Saturday a flight of aeroplanes under the Commander E. F. Briggs, of the Royal Naval Air Service, with flight Commander J. T. Babington and flight Lieutenant S. V. Sippe as pilots, flew from French territory to the Zeppelin airship factory at Friedrichshafen.

"All three pilots in succession flew down to close range under a heavy fire from guns, mitrailleuses, and rifles, and launched their bombs according to instructions. Commander Briggs is reported to have been shot down, wounded, and taken to hospital as a prisoner. Both the other officers have returned safely to French territory, though their machines were damaged by gun fire. They report positively that all bombs reached their objective, and that serious damage was done to the Zeppelin factory.

"This flight of 250 miles, which penetrated 120 miles into Germany, across mountainous country, in difficult weather conditions, constitutes with the attack a fine feat of arms."

It is satisfactory to record that the new British army aeroplane is the best possessed by any nation. It is easily the fastest, and most stable, and is also one of the best climbers and strongest machines in existence.

FIGHTING AEROPLANES.

Aeroplanes have already been furnished with guns and light armour, and a Russian named Sikorsky had constructed an aeroplane which will carry 10 men and more. There can be no doubt that, at an early date, powerful fighting aeroplanes will be constructed which will be used to destroy the enemy's speedy light scouts. It would appear then that there will be two types of aeroplane, one type employed for scouting purpose, and the other type employed in destroying the enemy's aeroplanes and airships.

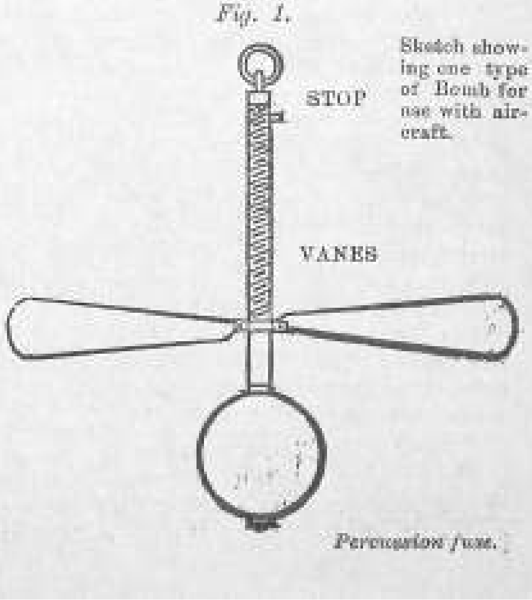
The attempt to obtain the command of the air will, in future, probably take place at the very outbreak of hostilities and before the land forces come to grips. The moral effect of losing the first aerial encounters is likely to be very great.

In this connection, it is very satisfactory to learn that the British aviators have established a moral superiority over their German adversaries. It is stated that whenever a German aeroplane appears in sight, two British aeroplanes rise to drive it away, or to destroy it. If they are able to continue this plan, the German aeroplanes will soon be tied as securely to the ground as the German navy is bottled up in its own harbours.

WEAPONS USED WITH AEROPLANES.

In fighting between aeroplanes, quick-firing guns, rifles and revolvers are commonly employed. For use against enemy situated on land, the most usual weapon has been the explosive bomb, which usually weighs about 22 lbs. and is fitted with a percussion fuse to make it explode readily on striking any surface. Airships may carry machine guns, and sometimes they are provided with torpedo discharge apparatus in the cars below the gas chamber ; they are also frequently armed with a machine gun carried on the top, access to it being obtained by means of a shaft through the gas chamber.

Fig. 1.



Sketch showing one type of Bomb for use with aircraft.

Percussion fuse.

Fig. 1. shows one type of bomb for use with aircraft. It is furnished with vanes which, when the bomb is dropped, are caused to rotate and move upwards along the spirally grooved stem. When they strike the stop on the top, they cause the bomb to become armoured, so that it will explode readily on striking.

There is considerable difficulty in aiming a bomb accurately for the reason that it does not fall vertically, but continues to travel onwards in the direction of movement of the aeroplane after it has been dropped.

Fig. 2.

Diagram showing path of bomb dropped from a height of 6,500 feet from aeroplane flying at 67 miles per hour.

Point at which bomb is dropped.

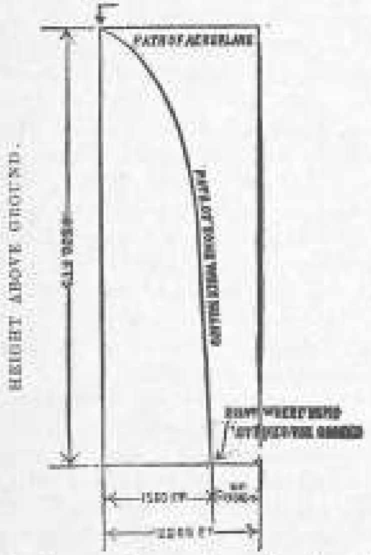


Fig. 2. shows the path of a bomb dropped from a height of 6,500 feet above ground level from an aeroplane travelling at 67 miles per hour. The bomb will reach the earth in 23 seconds, and as indicated in the diagram, during that time it will have travelled 1,560 feet from the point at which it was dropped. The aeroplane if it continued on its course would in the same time reach a point 705 feet beyond the point where the bomb strikes the ground.

By means of a series of tables, and knowing the height of the aeroplane above the ground from the instruments carried, the observer is able to make a calculation of the distance behind the target at which the bomb should be dropped. This depends on the speed of the aeroplane which in still air is given by means of air speed measurer, which every aircraft should carry. There is however nearly always some wind, and the speed and direction of motion relative to the earth are not the same as that through the air.

Fig. 3.

Direction in which aeroplane points speed 60 M.P.H.

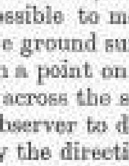
Fig. 3. shows how an aircraft with an air speed at 60 miles an hour steering along a line A B is deflected by a wind of 30 miles an hour blowing in a direction A C, so that the actual line and movement of the aircraft is in the direction A D at a speed of 79 miles per hour.

With aeroplanes it is very difficult to find the speed relative to the earth, but with airships it has been found possible to measure it by reflecting an image of the ground surface on to a screen. The speed at which a point on the ground surface apparently travels across the screen, and its direction enables the observer to determine with some degree of accuracy the direction and speed of the aircraft's movement relative to the earth.

USE OF DARTS WITH AIR CRAFT.

In the present war, the use of steel darts and arrows has been largely developed for attacking troops by aircraft. One type is about 5 inches long stamped out of a steel rod. The tip is bullet-shaped and behind it the rod is reduced to a wire with a steel feathering to ensure the descent of the dart point downwards. The darts weigh about

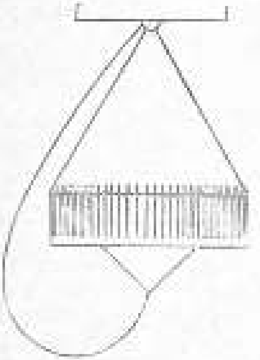
Sketch showing one type of dart used with aircraft.



$\frac{3}{4}$-oz. each, and some 12,500 can be carried by an aeroplane. It is stated that from as low an elevation as 600 feet, the dart will kill or wound

as surely as any rifle bullet. In a Munich paper Dr. Volkmann states that a dart which struck a

Sketch showing box full of darts which are discharged by pulling a string, and thus turning the box upside down.



Box of 50 or 100 darts.

man on the shoulder traversed the whole of his body; he says that the wounds inflicted are almost always mortal. The English and the Germans have recently adopted these darts, and in a letter recently received from England, I heard of one firm in Bolton that had received an order for 50 million darts, packed in one million boxes, each containing 50 darts, which were launched by sliding back the bottom of the box.

EFFECT OF AVIATION ON WAR STRATEGY AND TACTICS.

The general result of aviation on war strategy tactics is that :—

(1) The plans prepared in peace have to be developed with the greatest possible care and brain power in order that the preliminary dispositions of the troops may be best possible.

(2) An all round speeding up of strategic operations become necessary.

(3) The Generals commanding should possess a much fuller and much more accurate knowledge of the positions and movements of both their own allies and their enemy, and this should lead to more order.

(4) If the huge masses of modern armies are found to have been wrongly placed, the enemy's aircraft will discover it, and no amount of zeal, training, bravery, or mobility, can make up for it. There will be no time for a general re-shuffling such as has been possible in the past.

(5) The offensive will increase in advantage over the defensive.

(6) The position, strength and movements of army corps will be accurately known.

Hitherto it has sometimes been possible for small mobile well commanded force by rapid hidden movements to defeat considerably larger forces. This was exemplified in the American Civil War by Jackson, who, by his splendid daring, was able to defeat armies considerably larger than his own. Aircraft will render such action practically impossible.

HOW AIR CRAFT MIGHT HAVE ALTERED HISTORY.

Reading accounts of the Napoleonic battles, I have been much struck with the fact that one army was often quite in the dark as to the positions of other armies, both friends and foes. As is well-known, Napoleon's defeat at the battle of Waterloo was largely due to the way in which his General Grouchy was deceived by Blucher. As will be remembered, Blucher with the German Army was marching to join the English Army, and Napoleon despatched Grouchy to hold Blucher in check, while he with his superior force defeated the English. Blucher however was able completely to deceive Grouchy, to slip by him and to reinforce the English at a highly critical time. If Grouchy had been supplied with aircraft he would have known exactly where Blucher's main army was. He could have carried out Napoleon's wishes and might have considerably altered the history of Europe of that time.

Even as late as the battle of Mukden in the Russo-Japanese War, the Japanese were able to deceive the Russians and cause them to think that their left flank would be turned. To prevent this, reserves were hurried eastwards that they might be thrown against the main Japanese attack, which in reality was on the west flank. Had the Russians been in possession of aircraft, such deception would have been impossible.

ANTI-AIRCRAFT GUNS AND THEIR AMMUNITION.

The introduction of airships and aeroplanes has brought about the design of special guns to attack aircraft. Ordinary guns are not suitable on account of the exceptional conditions, for an airship or aeroplane presents a rapidly moving target, the range of which is not easily ascertained.

Rifle fire and machine gun fire are lacking in range, effectiveness, and facility for observing the path of the projectile.

Ordinary field-guns do not possess sufficient elevation to allow of their being trained on aircraft, nor, when they are once trained, are they able to follow it.

The principal requirements of an anti-aircraft gun are: that it must be capable of great elevation up to nearly 90 degrees. It must be capable of firing in any lateral direction. The pivoting mechanism must be so arranged that the gun may be rotated sufficiently quickly to follow the movement of the aircraft, and finally a rapid rate of firing must be maintained.

Three types of guns have been developed on these lines. One for use in the field mounted on a light two-wheeled carriage; another for use on a motor car, and a heavier gun for use on board ship.

AMMUNITION.

Among the special ammunition that has been devised for use against aircraft may be mentioned:—

(1) The incendiary shell for igniting the gas of the dirigible.

(2) A smoke producing shell. A hollow space in the rear being fitted with smoke producing material, which gives out a thick easily visible smoke, enabling the path of the shell to be readily followed, so that the correction of aim required may be readily ascertained.

AVOIDANCE OF OBSERVATION.

For troops that wish to avoid observation by aircraft, the following points should be borne in mind:—The two principal influences are background and movement; for instance, troops are easily seen on a light coloured road when moving, while they are difficult to perceive if lying amongst grass or small bushes, and if they keep still. Another point to be borne in mind is never to look up.

If on a broad road and an enemy aeroplane comes in sight, it is well to keep all troops on one side and instruct them to keep perfectly still. The remainder of the road will from a considerable height appear to be the whole road. On the other hand, when in column of route on a narrow road, cover should at once be taken on both sides. When moving in extended order in open country, troops should be instructed immediately to take such cover as is available and to lie quite still until the aircraft has passed. Woods, belts of trees, high hedges, and villages are examples of good cover. When in camp or bivouac, enemy observers may be deceived if the usual formation is altered, if, for instance, a battery can be made to appear like a R. E. Company.

Troops billeted in villages or towns are a difficult problem for the observer. It is impossible for the aircraft observer to determine what is their number or composition. It is probable that in the present war, villages and towns have on this account been greatly used for accommodating troops, and this may explain to some extent the great amount of destruction of villages and towns that has taken place.

It is well to light cooking fires near villages, so that the smoke may not attract the attention of the enemy.

G. A. NATESAN & CO.'S PUBLICATIONS.

Many of our countrymen are deeply indebted to the head of the enterprising firm of G. A. Natesan & Co. Madras, for the valuable publications they have been placing before the Indian public dealing with important questions of contemporary interest or with the lives and careers of some of our foremost Indians, both ancient and modern. We do not think there is any other publishing house in India that has attempted what Mr. Natesan has done with so much success during the last four years to instruct public opinion by means of handy, cheap, and useful publications. Mr. Natesan is not only a man of literary attainments but endowed with business capacity and sound discernment. He certainly deserves to be congratulated on the success of his useful publications.—*The Guzerati.*

There are certainly no publishing houses in India that can at all be compared with those of Murray, Constable, Blackie and Macmillan in England. Such historic concerns apart, there are very few firms that take the trouble of being up-to-date, or by the variety of their publications to form and direct the public taste or to diffuse useful and interesting knowledge among their constituents. Among these few Messrs. Natesan and Company of Madras undoubtedly occupy the place of honour. The *Indian Review*, published by Mr. Natesan, is undoubtedly a gem of its kind and no cultured Indian cares to be without it. But the Review represents only one side of Mr. Natesan's activity. Not a month elapses but this enterprising firm brings out elaborate volumes on every kind of subject that affects the interests of India and they are generally the work of men who know what they are writing about. But one of the most popular outputs of the firm is the string of short, succinct and instructive biographies of eminent Indians which are published from day to day * * * Messrs. Natesan & Co. are doing a distinct and national service by issuing brief sketches of the lives of men who have played an important part in the modern epochs of Indian History. We thankfully acknowledge the receipt of all these and have great pleasure in briefly noticing them.—*The Sanjvartman.*

AIR CRAFT IN WAR

The Balloon, the Dirigible, and the Aeroplane,

BY J. E. HENSMAN, A.M.I.C.E.

THE conquest of the air has been the ambition of man for countless ages. The heroes in the stories of ancient mythology, are credited with wings by means of which they sped to rescue fair damsels or attack furious monsters. Although inventors and students from earliest times have been devoting all their attention to the art of flying, there is no authentic record of any one having left the mother earth until 1660 when Allard, and in 1678 Besnier, both Frenchmen made an attempt to fly with machines. In 1783, the brothers Montgolfier, sons of a rich paper maker in France, made experiments with balloons filled with hot air. They discovered that hot air enclosed in a gas bag gives a lifting value. Successful ascents were made with these balloons. In the same year, the brothers Robert carried out successfully investigations on parallel lines with this difference. Instead of filling the gas bag with hot air, they filled it with hydrogen, and arranged for supporting a car to carry a passenger from the gas bag. Hydrogen rapidly took the place of hot air as the lifting agent, and rubber coated silk replaced paper as the containing envelope. In 1785 Blanchard crossed the English Channel in a balloon.

No important developments took place till the year 1836, when a balloon containing 85,000 cubic feet of gas—known as the Nassau balloon—crossed the English channel from London. Since then attempts were made from time to time to improve the balloon and devise means for steering it.

Giffard was the first to construct a balloon that could be steered. This was in 1852. He built a cigar shaped balloon, 114 feet long and 39 feet in diameter at the largest point, to which he attached a small steam engine of three horse power and weighing 100 pounds. He made several balloons of this type, but could not proceed further in his experiments on account of their excessive cost. Various other inventors, principally French tackled the problem from time to time, some of their machines being driven by manual power, and others by electric power.

It was not, however, until the present century when the development of the petrol engine reached a high state of efficiency that the conquest of the air became a possibility. The introduction of the motor car and the necessity of having powerful engines of small size and light weight directed the attention of the most skilful engineers to the production of petrol engines of this type and their employment on flying machines.

THE AEROPLANE

We have till now been speaking of balloons or "Lighter than Air" machines—a few introductory remarks on the beginnings of the "Heavier than Air" machines—popularly known as aeroplanes—seem necessary.

This problem of flying with a heavy type of machine seriously engaged many minds, principally from the year 1867 onwards. Professor Langley of America and Sir Hiram Maxim made important experiments. The former was the first to construct a model aeroplane which could make any considerable flight by means of propellers worked by its own engines. His researches into air currents and the stability of aeroplanes were of immense and enduring value, and his death was a great loss to aviation.

Sir Hiran Maxim built a huge aeroplane costing £20,000; as a flying machine it was not a success, but its failure enabled to teach many useful things about the best propellers to use, wind pressure and the like. But the work which resulted in success is attributed to the brothers Lilienthal, one of whom lost his life while flying in 1899, and the brothers Wright of America. Both the brothers Lilienthal and the brothers Wright based their study and experiments on the school boy's kits. The general principle of the

enables the cars and propelling machinery to be rigidly connected to the frame-work thus obtaining the best possible result from the propellers. A description of the Zeppelin in the Counts' own words with illustration appeared in our last issue.

It must be admitted that as a spectacular thing a dirigible airship aloft is much more imposing and impressive than an aeroplane. The latter at a great height is a tiny thing. But the dirigible with its gigantic shape is an impressive and picturesque sight. And in war the idea of a great aerial warship throwing down bombs is more terrifying than that of the aeroplane scout. But their relative usefulness is still an undecided matter.

The objections against the dirigibles of any of the above types are :—

(1) The leakage of gas renders them untrustworthy.

(2) Their bulk offers great resistance to the air and entails the use of engines of very high horse power.

(3) To protect them against wind and weather, some types of dirigibles have to be deflated—and once they are deflated, they are useless and have to be conveyed to their base—or to some spot where the necessary gas can be obtained. This is a most serious defect in time of war.

(4) The rigid type of airship can only come to rest on water, except in an absolute calm; and must be housed in a harbour to protect it from the wind. This enormously limits its usefulness and field of action.

(5) The bulk of the airship is a disadvantage and presents a big target to the enemy.

(6) The number of men required to manage it, its slow speed and the small altitude it can attain to are all serious drawbacks against its use for any purpose.

Coming now to the **Heavier than Air** types, we observed while tracing the history of flying machines that the "Glider" was the parent of the aeroplane. Most of us know that a school boy's kite would only fly when there was some wind—and the stronger the wind, the better it flew and the more difficult to hold it. The school boy's kite was improved by Lilienthal and others into a box-kite which consisted of two flat planes held together by distant pieces in such a manner as to allow of the passage of air between the planes. The next step was the glider.

In the glider, as it was eventually worked out, there were two planes fixed one above the other and separated from each other by distant places, the lower plane having at its centre some arrangement for holding the operator during his descent. The glider was taken to the top of a hill, or cliff, the operator took his place, and the apparatus was pushed over into the air. The descent of the glider caused the passage of a certain amount of air under the planes forming the glider, and the pressure of this wind, as it virtually was, lessened the speed at which the glider descended. In place of falling vertically downwards, when all was right, it made a beautiful glide, a descent at a slight angle with the horizontal line.

The **Aeroplane** as we know it to-day is a development of the glider.

Our readers may want to know how an aeroplane flies. To explain this we would refer them to the kite, which, whatever its shape may be is an aeroplane. The pull of the string on the kite is the counterpart of the driving power of the petrol engine in the flying machine. If the flat side of the kite is tilted against the breeze, the air strikes it and is reflected downwards at a similar angle. The line bisecting this angle gives the resultant upward thrust. "The angle of reflection is equal to the angle of incidence" is a truth familiar to all Matriculation students. If the kite were not held by a string, this upward thrust would blow the plane back, which is prevented by the pull of the string, and the kite is kept soaring thereby. The method of starting to fly a kite by towing it behind for some distance at a certain angle until the speed is sufficient to allow it to rise, is also very much like the starting of an aeroplane.

The air offers a strong resistance to the flying machine, and the object of the builder of the aeroplane is to so shape his plane and aeroplane as will overcome this resistance.

Air currents move in regular lines without eddies or whirlpools. Any disturbance of this stream line sets up whirls and hinders the passage through the air. Therefore the planes etc., must be shaped to allow of easy passage of air past and over them.

As a result of experiments, it was found that the best form of plane had a curved or cambered surface. The term "plane" is used in an Irish sense. They are not planes, but arched members, the highest part of the arch being nearer the front edge, and sloping gently towards the rear.

The plane further is thicker in the front and tapers away. It is in fact a copy of a bird's wing, and the best form known so far.

Investigation showed that the above form of plane possessed the greatest lifting power. The reason is the air current strikes the upper part of the arch (or hump) and is reflected at an acute

angle upwards and away from the plane. This results in a partial vacuum above the rear or back portion and "sucks the plane up." But the air under the arch portion is cushioned and slides down to the back edge, and it is this portion of the air which is caught and forced down beneath the plane, and supports it when the plane is tearing through the air at high speed.

The planes therefore provide the supporting surface and in form and section would be arched or humped as described above.

The work of the pilot of the aeroplane is very exacting, and he has in addition to steering the machine and looking into heaps of other details while the machine is in motion, watch and observe carefully the air currents while flying. The caprices of the air are as sudden and varied as the weather. Our readers will have noticed in the accounts of aviation contests regarding the difficulties experienced by aviators in getting into "Air pockets." Very little is known about these pockets. They are supposed to be "holes" where the air is less dense and is not in motion, thereby considerably lessening the support afforded by the passage of the supporting planes through the air. The result is a lessening of the lifting power of the machine which tends to make a dive to the earth. Unless the pilot is wide awake, the machine may dive too far to make recovery of balance impossible.

The behaviour of air currents and the construction and management of aeroplanes is strictly speaking the subject matter of the science known as "Aero-Dynamics".

The subject is too abstruse for popular treatment. We have only touched on one or two simple details, and the serious reader is referred to books on "Aero-Dynamics" for fuller information in the matter.

We quote again from Mr. Walker's booklet which describes the construction &c., of the aeroplane in simple language.

There are virtually only two forms of aeroplane now on the market, known respectively as the monoplane and the biplane. A third, known as the triplane, was also introduced, and a certain number were made and flew, but the writer understands its manufacture has been abandoned in favour of the other forms.

The writer proposes to describe the biplane first, because it is virtually the glider with a few additions. It will be seen that it consists of two planes arranged vertically one above the other, together with the elevating plane to be described below, a tail plane and the steering arrangements, and the engine propeller and accessories. In the biplane the lower of the two planes is virtually a platform, upon which the driving engine, the seat for the pilot, and all accessories are carried. The middle portion of the lower plane is very strongly constructed. In the Wright biplane it was made of stout timber. The planes consist of frames, made in the early machines of bamboo, sometimes of hickory or other suitable wood, rectangular in form, divided into convenient divisions, so that the treated canvas, or other material forming the supporting planes, can be stretched over them. Both planes are lifting planes, both feel the pressure of the wind passing under them. The upper plane is supported from the lower plane by what are called "struts"; virtually pillars or stanchions made in the form that will offer the least resistance to the wind, more or less like the body of a fast fish. From the middle of the lower plane, what is called the fusellage stretches out to the rear. It is an openwork structure consisting in the early machines of timbers; its office is to carry the tail plane and the rudder, and it is useful to hold guides for the wires controlling the rudder planes.

The elevator or elevating plane in the typical early form of biplane projects in front of the two main planes. It is supported from the central platform of the lower plane by outriggers, as shown, and its movement up or down are controlled by wires or tapes, worked by levers or other arrangements close to the pilot's hand. The elevator and the tail plane assist to support the machine as a whole.

In the central platform is fixed the engine which is to drive the machine through the air, the carburettor furnishing fuel to the engine, the radiator for cooling the water that circles round the engine, and the gearing for driving the propellers.

The propeller in the earlier forms of biplane is usually fixed at the rear of the lower plane. It may be driven direct from the engine, its central boss being attached to the engine shaft, or it may be driven by chains. In the Wright and the Cody biplane, and in some others, there are two propellers, driven in opposite directions, by chains similar to those used in automobile driving, which deliver the power from the engine-shaft to the propeller shafts.

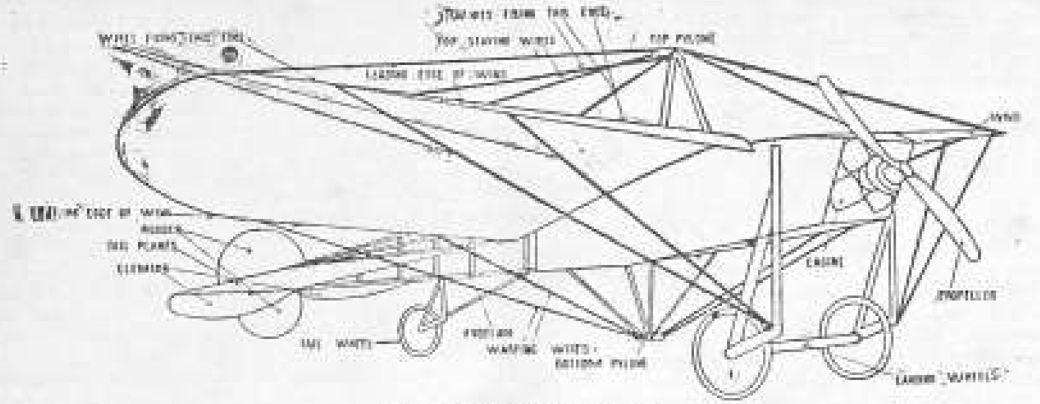
In addition to the above, the biplane has usually some arrangement to assist in balancing.

THE MONOPLANE.

The monoplane, is a much prettier apparatus, and very much more like a bird in form. The Bleriot, which has done the most important work and won the greatest number of races, is more like a biplane, with the supporting planes arranged on the same lever. As the name implies, in a monoplane, the supporting planes—there must necessarily be two—are approximately in the same horizontal plane. They nearly always slope a little out of the horizontal as they recede from the central fusellage.

But the general arrangement of the monoplane is very different from that of the biplane, as will be seen from the drawings of the two machines respectively. In the biplane, it will be remembered, the fusellage is merely an accessory to support the tail plane and vertical rudder; in the monoplane the fusellage bears nearly the same relation to the rest of the machine as the body of a bird does to its wings, head and tail. In the latest forms the main fusellage closely approaches the outlines of a bird's body. It is completely enclosed, and the curves of the enclosing structure are such as will avoid the formation of eddies in the air, as the machine moves forward.

In the early forms, the Bleriot and others, the fusellage or body might be looked upon as a long openwork cradle of rectangular section, but tapering from the front to the rear.



BLERIOT MONOPLANE.

In the monoplane also the propeller is fixed in front of the machine, where the bird's head would be; and immediately behind it is the engine, whose shaft is directly attached to that of the propeller. Behind the engine is the chair for the pilot, with the levers and other arrangements for giving him the necessary control of the machine. At the other end, as mentioned above, is the combination tail forming both the rudder and the elevator. As in the biplane, the tail plane assists in supporting the machine, part of it only being movable and acting as the elevator.

The fusellage or framework forms, as in the biplane, a convenient place in which to carry the guys controlling the rudder and elevator.

In the monoplane also, balancing is obtained by warping parts of the wings, up or down. In some monoplanes a portion of the wing towards the tip is arranged to be movable, very much on the lines of the flaps in the Wright biplane, and they are moved up or down by means of guys, wires, or ribbons, ending in levers at the aviator's hand. In other forms of monoplane the wings themselves are moved bodily up or down; that is to say, the angle which the wing as a whole makes with the fusellage is changed.

The wings of the monoplane and the supporting planes of the biplane are built up of a number of longitudinal and transverse ribs, over which the treated fabric is stretched. It is usually secured to both the upper and lower faces of the ribs. The form of the ribs gives the necessary camber.

THE HYDRO-AEROPLANE.

The hydro-aeroplane, or hydroplane, as it is sometimes called, is merely any aeroplane fitted with floats that will enable it to rest upon the water. It is also a tractor biplane. The idea is that the machine shall be used with men-of-war cruisers, and the writer suggests also with ocean passenger steamships. The floats are merely curved pieces of timber of such dimensions that their power of flotation is sufficient to support the weight of the aeroplane and its passengers when it is resting on the water. It is hoped that the aeroplane will be used for scouting. In that case the pilot on his machine would be lowered on to the water by the side of the ship. He would rise from the water, just as an aeroplane rises from the ground, would conclude his reconnaissance, and on returning to his ship would land on the water and be hoisted in.

HOW THE AEROPLANE RISES AND FALLS.

The aeroplane is made to move upwards, to climb into the sky, so as to speak, or to move downwards, by the aid of the elevator. The elevator consists of a cambered surface, fabric stretched over a wood or metal frame; carried in the case of the earlier forms of biplane usually in front, and in the monoplane and tractor like biplane in the rear. When carried in front it is arranged with its inner ends as pivots, so that its outer ends can be raised or lowered. In the monoplane and tractor biplane the elevator is usually hinged at the centre, and guys or wires from levers near the pilot's hands in both cases enabled him to place it any any angle he requires, with the horizontal. When the elevator is tilted upwards, the pressure of the air on the under-side when it is carried in front, and on the upper side when it is carried in rear, turns the front of the machine upwards, or, what amounts to the something, the rear of the machine downwards. In either case the course of the machine is directed upwards. When the elevator is turned downwards, the pressure of the air, on its upper side when it is carried in front, and on the lower side when it is carried behind, caused the front of the machine to turn downwards, or the tail to turn upwards. In either case the course of the machine is directed downwards.

HOW THE AEROPLANE IS STEERED RIGHT AND LEFT.

The aeroplane is steered right or left by the aid of the vertical rudder, which in all forms of the machine is carried on the tail. The rudder is sometimes single, and there are sometimes two; and again the two are sometimes arranged side by side, and sometimes one above the other. The rudder consists of a frame of wood or metal, of very much the same form as a boat's rudder, over which fabric similar to that used on the main planes is stretched. The position of the rudder or rudders is controlled by guys running from levers or other arrangements at the pilot's hand. Turning the vertical rudders to the right causes the head of the aeroplane to turn to the right; and turning the vertical rudder to the left causes the head of the aeroplane to turn to the left. It is the pressure of the wind upon the vertical rudder which pushes the tail in the opposite direction to that in which the head goes.

There are various arrangements for the tail. In some forms of biplane, for instance, there is a kind of box, inside of which one or two vertical rudders are fixed, the idea being that the draught from the propellers, which in the earlier form of biplane are just behind the main planes, will be more effective if it is guided over the surfaces of the vertical rudders, by the box-like structure.

HOW THE AEROPLANE IS DRIVEN THROUGH THE AIR.

The whole structure, whether it be a monoplane, a biplane, or a triplane, is driven through the air by one or more propellers, or tractors, as they are called when placed in front of the machine. The propeller is precisely similar to that of a dirigible balloon, except that it would necessarily be smaller than those required for very large dirigibles. It consists usually of two or more blades of a screw, and is revolved at a very rapid rate, one thousand revolutions per minute and over its revolution causing the whole machine to move forwards.

The propellers are driven by petrol engines, which have been worked out specially for the purpose. In the monoplane the shaft or axle of the engine has so far always been connected to the boss or centre of the propeller. In the case of the Gnome engine the equivalent of the shaft, a tube attached to the revolving cylinders is attached to the boss of the propeller. The shaft or the tube revolves, in obedience to the power exerted by the engine, and the propeller or propellers do so also, and drive the machine through the air.

In order to understand how the propeller drives an aeroplane or a dirigible through the air (the action is the same in each case) it will be as well to realise that the air we breathe, that surrounds us, is a fluid. We cannot see it, but physicists look upon it very much in the same light as water and other liquids. To the physicist all liquids and gases are fluids, and have very many properties in common. They all have weight, they all have the power of supporting bodies floating in them, they all resist the passage of bodies through them, they all set up friction over the surfaces of any bodies passing through them, and they can all be made the medium for the operation of screws or propellers.

Consider the action of an ordinary screw when it is driven into a block of wood. It will be remembered that the ordinary wood-screw is furnished with a needle point at one end, which a tap of the hammer causes to enter the wood. Then the screw-driver, turning the head of the screw, causes the outer cutting edge of the thread to cut its way into the wood, and as it cuts its way in, so the screw as a whole advances. If we had a block of wood of great length, and a screw of great length, with proper tools for the purpose, we could cause the screw to cut its way right through the block. In place of the screw as we know it, and which is usually tapered in form, we might have a rod with a pointed end, and a few threads near the end in place of the usual large number. We could drive this rod through a long block of wood, the screw cutting its way through the whole length, by applying sufficient turning force at the other end, the non-pointed end.

If we substitute water or air for the block of wood, the above is exactly what we have in a screw designed to drive a ship through the water, and an aeroplane or dirigible through the air. Just as the screw on the rod described above would cut its way through the wood, so the screw-blades forming the propeller cut their way through the air or water, and force the ship, the dirigible or the aeroplane, forwards.

For further information regarding the aeroplane, its engine, the method of operating it, alighting from it, controlling it &c, we would refer the readers to the booklet from which we have quoted above, and also to Ralph Simmonds "All about Air-ships." (Cassel & Co., London.)

THE USE AND FUTURE OF THE AEROPLANE.

As compared with the dirigible, the aeroplane is far less costly, moves easily, and is portable and manageable. It is computed that for the cost of one dirigible as many as 35 aeroplanes could be built. In the present European War its superiority over the dirigible has almost been established. As regards speed also the aeroplane is far ahead of the dirigible. Every day improvements are being made on it. The present war has clearly established its reliability and usefulness as a scout, bomb-thrower, fighter &c. And we have no doubt that its future development and use will be extensive and rapid, and that it will be impressed into the service of man—both in peace and war—for all the purposes for which the railway train and the ship and the motor vehicles are now being used.

THE BHAGAVAD GITA: OR THE LORD'S SONG.—With the Text in Devanagari and an English Translation by Mrs. Annie Besant—Note.—It has long been my ambition to place within reach of the English-reading public a cheap edition of the Bhagavad-Gita with the text in Devanagari and an English translation of the same. Annie Besant, that warm and tried friend of India whose services to our land it were vain to count, has enabled me to realise that ambition by generously granting the use of her English translation. It is devoutly hoped that this great scripture of the Hindus will find a place in thousands of homes both in India and elsewhere—G. A. Natesan.

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☛ *The annual subscription to the Indian Review is Rs. 5 (Five) only including postage. Subscription can commence from any month. If you have not already seen the Review send postage stamps for As. Four for a specimen copy to G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras. Current issues (As. 8.) are not given as specimen copies.*

"The Zeppelin:" A Description By Count Zeppelin.

"Zeppelin" has recently been very much in the air, and many a layman has asked "What is Zeppelin?" It is a unique kind of air-ship built some years ago by Count Ferdinand Zeppelin of Germany. Zeppelin after whom the most effective of the air-ships is named is a German Aeronaut born in Constance on July 8, 1838. He was early educated at the Polytechnik, Stuttgart and latterly in the University of Tubingen. He took part in the American War of Secession and served in the Franco-German War in 1870. In 1900 he made his first ascent in a dirigible air-ship of rigid type and has since been the premier aeronaut in the continent. Several of its improved successors came to grief, but on the whole the rigid dirigible has made the most important progress and that chiefly owing to Zeppelin. The last Zeppelin built in 1913, and acquired by the German navy, had a length of 525 ft. and a volume of 776,000 cubic ft., and was capable of a speed of 52 miles an hour. The latest military Zeppelin also carries a machine-gun. Zeppelin started a passenger air service in 1910. Now that he has volunteered his services to go in command of an air-ship at this ripe age of seventy-six, a well-known story of his earlier exploits in the Franco-German war is particularly interesting. On July 24, 1870, within a few hours of the declaration of war, the Count, with a company of eleven horsemen, made a reconnoitering dash into French territory. They were observed, almost surrounded, and had to ride for their lives. When speeding through a frontier village a lancer dashed at the Count and wounded his horse. Zeppelin cut the man down, jumped from his own horse to his assailant's, and succeeded in reaching German soil.

The following lecture delivered by Count Zeppelin in Berlin in 1908, and now reprinted from an old issue of "The Review of Reviews," will no doubt be read with interest:—

THE mightiest achievement of the present generation with relation to the conquest of the air was the construction of conveyances in which a man could rise in the air not only as before as an appendage to the aerial globe, but as a pilot, himself fixing the way which would carry him to the destination he had chosen.

In the investigations as to what extent we have so far command over the ways of the air and as to how far we are justified in assuming that the consolidations and extension of this mastery will take place in a conceivable time, I hope to convince readers of the fact that I keep aloof both from scientifically ungrounded chimera and from unscientific doubts about things that are positively attainable.

For carrying out this investigation, we require, above all things, clearness as to the maximum efficiency of aerial navigation, which has been already attained or is expected to be attained in the near future, in regard to reliability, speed during long flights, and carrying capacity. I emphasise the expression "maximum efficiency," because we wish to learn to what extent we may hope to increase our command of the air. If thereby all air-vessels with only small efficiency are neglected in our speculations, it does not mean that they are unable to render useful services on a smaller scale, as is the case of small steam boats. For a reliable working during long journeys there are required at least two driving contrivances independent from one another—that is, motors with air screws. Indeed, there are not, and there never will be, any motors which are not subject to interruptions in their running, any more than there are to-day locomotives in which troubles never take place; but, whereas without any damage to the train the locomotive can be replaced by another one, and whereas the steam boat, the engine of which stops, remains still floating, the air-ship, when its sole motor comes suddenly to a standstill, or has to be stopped, has often to land without the trouble being possibly remedied.

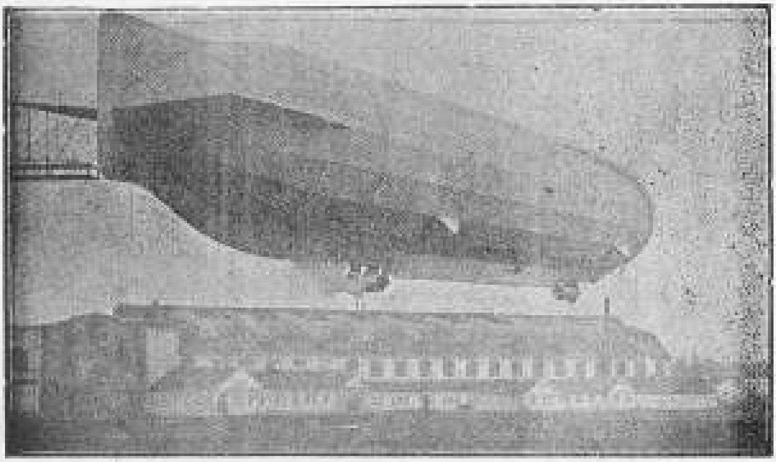
This is not too serious when it is possible to reach a suitable landing-place; but if the machine is over an inhospitable moorland, or rocky country, over desert or sea, or the enemy's land, the trouble of the motor may have as consequence the destruction of the crew and of the air-vessel. The same thing can happen if the gas globe of the air-ship loses its stiff outer shape, which fact causes it to become undirigible.

Another fact, which is not less full of consequences for the air-ship, is when its supply of petrol comes to an end before a landing-place is arrived at.

My rigid air-ship alone up to now fulfils the necessary conditions of stability. We will, therefore, only consider this system in our study, even if it has not shown in its journeys the maximum speed attained by another system, but which cannot offer the same safety.

When the specific speed of an air-ship has exceeded the speed of the most frequent winds, about 12 metres per second, the duration of the journey, which is dependent on the amount of working material that is carried, has a greater importance than the speed. An air-ship which is able to fly at 50 kilometres per hour during 50 hours travels during this time 2,500 kilometres; on the contrary, the air-ship which flies only at 40 kilometres per hour, but is capable of maintaining its flight during 100 hours, travels 4,000 kilometres. The speeds

COUNT ZEPPELIN,



A HUGE ZEPPELIN.

given as examples are approximately those which my air-ship attained in the years 1906 and 1907 with both propellers and sometimes with only one of them working. My air-ships which are now in construction will certainly attain these figures, if they do not exceed them.

The speed, of course, only refers to the penetration of the air surrounding the air-ship, and not to the distance travelled over with relation to the earth, which is also dependent on the movement of the air-space with relation to the earth. Aerology is still such a young science that I must call attention to a few of the rules which are necessary for the determination of the possible efficiency of air-ships.

Everyone knows so much about motorless captive balloons—viz., that in a dead calm they remain stationary over the same spot of earth, and that the rapidity and way which the balloon exhibits in shifting its position shows the strength and direction of the air currents—that is, of the wind or storm. At the same time it may be observed that the balloon retains in the heaviest storm the same shape it had in a complete calm, and the balloon passenger does not feel the least breath of wind all through this storm. The reason is obviously this: a balloon floats with the current of air at exactly the same rate as though it were a component part of it; only in the case of a difference between the two movements could and must the pressure be felt. The smallest soap-bubble behaves in exactly the same way as the largest balloon. As long as the former is hanging on the straw whence it issued, the breath which impels it and the air currents coming from all sides cause it to assume the most grotesque shapes; as soon, however, as the bubble is free and driven by the wind, it immediately assumes the shape of a perfect sphere, a sure sign that no extra pressure and no resistance is exerted on any side. This similarity of proceeding between the smallest soap-bubble and the most enormous balloon proves that it is absolutely of no consequence whether an air-ship is large or small, as long as it floats freely.

But another and very important factor in motor air-ship navigation arises from the principles just referred to. When a hitherto passively floating air-ship sets its own machinery in motion, it can move within the encircling air in all directions and at the same rate, because on all sides it meets with no resistance other than that which the air opposes to bodies moving through it. Therefore, that is to say, for powerful air-ships like mine, the struggle against wind and storm, which many people picture as so terrible, simply does not exist. Many people also imagine that such a monster cannot climb as high as a smaller and much lighter air-ship. But this does not depend on the body to be lifted; it depends rather upon how much weight the air-ship can spare in proportion to the original collective weight to be lifted. An air-ship rises about 80 metres in proportion to each hundredth part of its loss in collective weight. If a small motor air-ship of only 2,400 kilograms in collective weight, driven by a motor of 85 h. p. and carrying at the utmost benzine weighing 500 kilograms, calculated for a voyage of twenty hours at the outside, is to rise to a height of 1,200 metres, then it must leave behind it, or sacrifice, or use up 360 kilograms of benzine, which reduces its navigating life to a bare five hours, which, for practical purposes, and for the maintenance of the necessary security, is hardly enough.

SUPERIORITY OF LARGE AIR-SHIPS.

A large air-ship of 16,000 kilograms in collective weight, with a normal provision of petrol for 100 hours, and with a motor of corresponding power, after rising to a height of 1,200 metres, is still capable of travelling for over thirty-six hours—that is to say, nearly twice the time possible to the smaller air-ship at a lower altitude. From this it is evident that, also for high flights, the larger air-ships are always superior to the smaller ones. The height which a particular air-ship can attain, without a too great curtailment of its carrying powers, can be reckoned by any mathematician; he will also be convinced that his calculations are in accordance with the actual capabilities of the air-ship, without the necessity of the practical execution of such high flights.

SAFE LANDING ASSURED.

In the case of air-ships intended for long voyages, it is certainly desirable that they should be able to descend without injury, not only on water, but on all landing-places prepared to receive them. Many doubts are still expressed as to whether my rigid and enormous air-ships are able to do this. Here, however, my landing on the 17th February, 1906 which I was compelled to make in consequence of circumstances which it would be over-elaboration to explain here and which cannot possibly recur, demonstrates that my assertion of the possibility of a smooth landing was absolutely justified. The air-ship was not in the least damaged; it was only seriously damaged when, an hour later, a strong wind turned into a furious storm, striking it broadside, because the anchor did not hold fast in the frozen ground in front of the landing-place, and therefore the ship could not be held with head against the wind. The disposition to tear itself free, as the "Patrie" did, was prevented immediately by the letting out of a moderate amount of gas. After roping, holding it down by human agency was no longer necessary.

I would take this opportunity to point out how possible it is for strongly-built air-ships, with a weather-proof covering, to lie in a spot moderately sheltered from storms, as, for instance, in a narrow valley, or behind large buildings, etc., for months and weeks without the shelter of a regular refuge shed.

These refuge sheds need not be revolving, as is very generally supposed.

RELIABILITY.

In order to fully appreciate the performance of my air-ship, it may be stated that the length of its voyages is only curtailed by the waste of its store of petrol, for the largest loss which arises through diffusion or deterioration of the gas does not amount to the tenth part of the loss in weight caused by the waste of the petrol. Seeing that two propelling forces, independent the one from the other, are present, of which in long voyages only one is in activity, it is hardly conceivable that there would not be time to set at least one of them going before landing became necessary. And seeing that—an important matter which is too seldom taken into consideration—the crew is sufficient to provide for from two to threefold reliefs at the various posts, and, therefore, never overworked, it may be claimed for my air-ship that it is capable of being steered safely to its destination in a degree which hardly belongs to any other mechanical flying machine. There is, therefore, no reasonable ground for doubting that an air-ship of this construction and equipment should be

able to travel as long as its store of petrol holds out, just as surely as a well-tried steamer can travel as long as its stock of coal is not exhausted.

From all this it will be seen that, in my air-ship, we possess the newest method of locomotion, which, starting from sea level, and with twelve persons on board, can remain in the air for four days and traverse a distance of 4,000 kilometres. If the voyage starts from the German low-lying plains—from Berlin, for instance—twenty persons might be taken. If it is not intended to travel so long, then the shortening of the voyage permits other passengers, at the rate of one person for every three hours by which the time is reduced, to be taken, or a proportionate amount of weight, such as mail-bags, money, valuables, instruments, and, in short, any other objects of great value which do not weigh too heavy; in war, ammunition and, in case of necessity, infantry munitions could be taken for the home army.

THE MODEL FOR THE FUTURE.

The best point, however, of the rigid system of air-ship is the ease with which it can be further developed to a still greater efficiency. When I say so, I do not think, as has been imputed to me by the newspapers, of building an air-ship capable of carrying 100 passengers; but such a monster does not lie outside the limits of the technical possibilities.

Although there are not yet air vessels capable of travelling at 60 kilometres per hour—that is, about 3,000 kilometres in two days, or at lesser speed 6,000 kilometres within four and a half days, they will very probably be built within a reasonable time; and as a consequence of what has been attained so far, we must unhesitatingly reckon with air-ships of such an efficiency if we wish to imagine up to what limits the next generation will extend the conquest with air ocean.

The mastery of the atmosphere, with the possibility of travelling with certainty to a fixed goal, offers to air navigation—that is to say, the art of correctly guiding vessels—much more difficult problems than to the navigation on rivers and seas. The latter only requires a knowledge of the fairway, with its drifts, cliffs, and shallows; the sailor must also know the regular air movements, and he must be able to find his course when no land is in sight. Nevertheless, he has only to deal with one surface, having a constant elevation.

For the air navigator things are quite different; yes, when he is flying over the country on a sunny day, his eye, when he looks down, tells him how he has to steer, at least as long as he does not come near hilly country which towers above the elevations over which he cannot or will not rise. But when the wind plays round the mountains, always changing in a surprising manner—now strong, now weak, now going down, now going up—then it requires most careful attention, practice, and cleverness, as well as exact knowledge of the very ship which the man governs with relation to her capability of steering and the speed of her answering the pull or the reverse of the engines, with a view to avoid threatening impact. In the night time or in the fog, it is necessary to keep high, or on the side as much as possible from such a ground. For this purpose maps are necessary, on which the elevations are marked out by means of coloured zones.

MAPS INDISPENSABLE.

When such maps are at hand, the lowest and widest pass, for instance, over a chain of mountains is easy to find out, and air-ships will drive towards this pass when avoiding the great heights, to save gas, which, expending in the higher and thinner beds of the air, would escape through the safety valves of the balloon which had become tightly stretched. When maps of sufficiently large scale, at least 1: 200,000 are lacking, the airmen, meeting the necessity, will soon procure maps and views of the country, by means of photographs taken from the balloon. Likewise, searching for a landing-place in the dark and in the fog (less difficult however, because the air currents are there less irregular) will be, on the contrary, more difficult, because the question is not to keep clear of the ground, but to come near to it, and drivers must have an exact knowledge of the country, obtained in the day time.

And now, one word on the heights and distances up to the limits of our conquered realm.

My present air-ship could attain a height of over 3,000 metres, but then there will remain only a little petrol for continuing the journey. She would have consumed the same before, or thrown it as ballast; 1,500 metres can be taken as the practical highest limit, because, when this height has been obtained, there remains still sufficient lifting power, with a reserve of driving power, for a journey of three days. If the journey has already lasted for over twenty-four hours before this height is arrived at (the driving fuel would therefore be used for the fourth part), no loss in fuel weight is required for arriving at this height. But also in the case of a short journey it is certainly possible to arrive at this height without throwing ballast of dynamic power (that is to say, by means of a run directed obliquely upwards), because it would be possible to always maintain the air-ship at this height as long as the driving power still exists.

LONG DISTANCE JOURNEYS.

Owing to the further consumption of petrol, the equilibrium between buoyancy and load is always restored if a large consumption of petrol has previously taken place owing to a long journey, or if a circumstance—for instance, in war, the dangerous proximity of the enemy's guns—necessitates a sacrifice of some of the heavier objects, it is, of course, possible to reach much greater heights. In the subsequent calculations of the long distance journeys which are feasible, it will be necessary to reckon, not with the length of the air-line between two points, when it would lead over mountains more than 15,000 metres high, but with the length of the necessary circuitous route.

The next stage of development of my air-ships will produce vessels travelling between fifty-five and twenty-two hours only for long journeys. When a distance can be covered in a straight line with safety, its half length is the limit to which it is permissible to go from a place to which one wishes to return with safety. It is important to know this limit, especially when it is a question of flights over the ocean or the enemy's land.

For my present air-ship it amounts to 800 kilometres, and for the next air-ship to 1,150 kilometres—that is to say, under favourable circumstances of temperature, it would be possible to continuously fly, for instance, from Mayence to Danzig and back again, or from Metz to Königsberg and back. The circumstances are quite different if a landing is effected at Danzig or Königsberg, and a small distance—for instance, Berlin to Frankfort o/M, Berlin to Danzig, Munich to Vienna, Cologne to Hamburg—is chosen for the return journey, because the driving fuel can be replenished, and there-

fore the lesser quantity carried. The weight saved in this manner is then utilised for taking useful ballast, which on the distances mentioned above could consist of twenty passengers in addition to the crew. This circumstance is, of course, the more favourable the smaller the chosen distances are. There is also weight to spare for perfecting the arrangements. My air-ship in construction will have, for instance, a commodious enclosed working and sleeping room.

I have previously remarked that a motor air-ship on a journey entirely shares the movements of the air space in which it finds itself. She moves herself only in same, exactly as a ship which runs across a current is taken at the same time down a river by the said current. If she wishes to reach the point which is exactly opposite, she must take her course so much up river as during the time of crossing she will run upwards on the same distance as she will be taken downwards by the water. An air-ship has to do exactly the same thing when she wants to reach a point of the earth at the same time as a side wind is blowing towards the straight line to the said point. If the point lies in the direction of the wind, the air-ship will be accelerated or eased in her travel according to whether the wind blows towards the goal or in the opposite direction. If the speed of the counter wind is equal to the specific speed of the air-ship, the latter does not go forward in relation with the earth beneath, and will even travel back if the speed of the wind increases.

With a view to discover what distant goals my air-ship, travelling 4,000 kilometres at a speed of 12 metres per second, equal to 43·2 kilometres per hour, during four days can reach under the most unfavourable circumstances, it is necessary to know the duration and the strength of the contrary winds which could delay her progress.

Careful extracts and the hourly indications of the wind strength at meteorological stations, assumed the most stormy day which is conceivable during a year to be calculated from the longest periods of the strongest winds, and by comparing same with the average wind strength, the conclusion was arrived at that at least in Central Europe to encounter an average air movement calculated on the same direction of six metres per second during four whole consecutive days is the most difficult problem for an air-ship to surmount. In these most unfavourable circumstances my air-ship would be able to travel a distance of 1,700 kilometres in four days and she would still have a sufficient reserve of driving fuel. It would, therefore, be possible, for instance from Berlin to St. Petersburg, Moscow to Constantinople, even in those unfavourable days—in any case, the two latter towns—after a journey of approximately four days. On average days the journeys would take about forty hours, and on favourable days about thirty hours—that is to say, much quicker than any means of conveyance at the present day.

What I have stated above correctly applies to Central Europe and its lower air levels. It also probably applies to the whole Mediterranean basin, to European Russia and Siberia, to a large part of China, to the western and central part of North America, and large tracts of South America, etc.—generally speaking, to all continents and countries with high mountains.

From the coasts or the inner frontiers of the civilised countries (to where the air-ships can be easily conveyed in a dismantled state if they do not reach this point by their own power) it will be possible to penetrate or explore still unknown countries, and also for the consolidation of authority in some parts of the colonial regions to which no railways are yet leading, by means of consecutive day flights of 300 kilometres. For such day journeys both ways the air-ship requires only a small amount of driving fuel, and is therefore capable of carrying on each journey a number of people and equipment, or a supply of driving fuel for her own requirements, if she is to penetrate farther.

AIDS TO EXPLORATION.

In this manner the motor air-ship, such as we have here now, could be made use of for opening to civilisation those parts of the globe which have been so far only a little or not at all explored.

It may be pointed out that the calculation of journeys have been so far made without taking into consideration the fact that the air-ship may be in a position to choose more favourable winds. The air currents, on an average, increase the travelling efficiency of the air-ship, because first, during half of the journey, the winds increase the speed, and secondly, because it is often possible to find, on the side or over the straight and low line of flight, a wind current which crosses the current, which was rather unfavourably counteracting at the point of departure, and thirdly, because in many cases it may be expected that a wind will be found which will accelerate the journey.

In the foretelling of wind movements meteorology has made great progress of late. The International Commission for Scientific Aerial Navigation endeavours, under the direction of its President, Professor Hergesell, to increase the observation stations all over the civilised world and to issue weather bulletins, which are distributed by the telegraphs and the Press. The head of the Meteorological Institute of Lindenburg has arranged, in the environs of Berlin, special observations for the service of aerial navigation, thanks to which the air-ships of Berlin are able to journey with the greatest confidence, without having to dread any storms suddenly taking place in the higher regions.

AIR CURRENTS.

Still more important than flying over the Continent is the knowledge of the air currents for journeys over the sea. This is the only guide as to what an air-ship is able to attempt over the oceans. Our present air-ships should not, generally speaking, venture out over the sea at a greater distance than about 1,000 kilometres. The more so where winds blowing towards the coast are predominant; therefore, for instance, from the western coast of Europe westwards, owing to western winds being prevalent, there are, *vice versa*, winds blowing from the eastern coast of Central America towards the east, because the said coasts are continuously under the influence of eastern etesian winds. Much valuable information for the determination of the direction and duration of the longest flights over the oceans can be gleaned from the sailing provisions of the German Naval Observatory and from the knowledge of the trade winds monsoons, calms, etc. Let it, however, be pointed out to the meteorologists the importance to the aerial navigator to possess the fullest knowledge of the direction and strength of the currents which are near the earth and the very high ones which are observed by means of free balloons, kites and the flight of clouds, as well as those winds of an average height which are probable under special circumstances of temperature.

I have often heard the opinion that my airships are too expensive to admit of believing that they will be of general use. Of coure, only a very few wealthy men will be able to afford the luxury of such an air-vessel, but their number will, however, be greater than that of owners of high sea steam-yachts.

EXPENSE OR ECONOMY?

But air-ships—which, freeing themselves in any weather, in daytime and night time, are able to be always on the spot to report to the Commander of the Army, or to the Admiral, the movements of the enemy, and in addition, are able to penetrate to the extreme limits of the enemy's territory and thus considerably contribute to the victorious conduct of the war—could they really be too expensive?

With this supposed costliness they are not, proportionally speaking, in such a bad position, and the same with regard to the equipment and the working expenses; every small war-ship, every squadron, every battery are of a more considerable cost. And what does such an outlay mean if a colony is obtained and an unexplored country is opened by means of it?

The question is often put as to whether flying should be allowed over the political frontiers owing to the fact that the Customs operations and official Government supervision of the travellers would be eluded. As it is impossible to think of a barrier high up in the air, and it is not possible to prevent putting down passengers or articles in the foreign country, it is impossible to think of prohibiting international traffic by means of aerial navigation. The latter will, on the contrary, become more and more connecting link between the nations. It will further be necessary to regulate the air traffic by means of agreements between the States. All this is not so difficult as it seems to be at first sight. We have the precedent of the agreements regarding navigation and the International Maritime laws. As is done in the latter, there will have to be determined in the contracting countries the sole localities from which air-ships will have to fly towards another country, and where they will have to land when coming from abroad. With the collaboration of the Consuls of the other countries, the air vessels entitled to fly will receive their ship's documents with a statement of the passengers, post parcels, goods, etc. It should be easy to regulate the traffic in this manner without having to put on top of it, as some people think, all the existing ordinances regarding protection of the frontiers, passports and customs.

It will, of course, be necessary to add to the main lines of aerial traffic a large series of agreements, ordinance, and laws which will sometimes be very difficult to determine. In various countries, expert lawyers have already dealt with these questions. In our own country—Germany—I have been acquainted with the excellent essay of Grimwald dealing with the air-ship from the point of view of international and criminal law.

Now then, why do I stand here and why do I manifest my belief in air navigation? Why do I again take the trouble to base on scientific ways, and to render intelligible to the public at large the superior value, the extraordinary possibility of development of the system of rigid air-ships through showing what has so far been done? Why am I doing so, when the moment seems so near when actions will reduce all doubts to nothingness?

That time is not, perhaps, so near as it is thought. The progress of my undertaking has been followed until recently by many mishaps. It cannot be doubted that, after some practice, it is possible to safely travel during the night, and to land on firm ground. It would however, be a foolish start to endanger success, even to a small extent, by starting the first experiments during the time of the year of long nights, predominant fogs, and of frozen ground.

If, then, because the faith was lacking, we hesitate to proceed with a most confident zeal to further construction of air-ships, it is seriously to be dreaded that Germany will be too late, and even that, so near its complete victory, it would sink back into oblivion behind the brilliant successes of other systems which, from their very nature, are not capable of such a prospective development.

As long as God leaves me the forces and the means of further working, I shall go on. But if an end was put too soon to my activity, those who are conversant with my ideas regarding the future could not continue the work if they were not supported by the will of the people. This is why my words here should be considered as my will, by which I bequeath to the German people all that I have done up to now, so that my fellow-countrymen may obtain from it all the blessings which still lie dormant in it for them.

What I have done is only based on exact sciences, and did not need the high philosophical speculation of brainwork. I did not have to search for persuasion and belief, but calculation, logic and experiments link one certainty to another. And when a man is convinced that he can reach the goal, there is no special merit in finding the way. I am therefore fully confident that the enthusiasm which is shown to me by Germany and by Germans in all other countries does not rest upon an over-estimation of my services, but goes to the tool which was called upon to create something for which the world had been waiting. Science will take the thing over, technical competency will introduce the necessary improvements, natural science will lay bare the laws which regulate the efficiency, geography and ethnography will utilise this new instrument; political economy will then show how German capital has to tackle the matter immediately, so as to benefit from the advantage which consists in the possession of the first really serviceable air vessels. Juridical science will find the regulations and the national agreements according to which air navigation will be governed for furthering the connections and friendly traffic between the nations. I have therefore the greatest hope that the undertaking which I have commenced will be further developed through the cooperation of the German nation.

My air-ships will soon be counted as usual means of transport, with which long journeys will be taken with a relatively small risk for the passengers. The German nation can therefore assume with confidence that through the fund it has opened for itself a practicable way to the real conquest of the ocean of the air; that it will soon be in possession of air-ships which will contribute to the increase of the military power, and consequently to the maintenance of peace, and in various ways assist in the commerce and exploration of the earth. If a few more years of activity are given me, I will have the rare good fortune to have lived to see the complete success of my invention, for which I was chosen to be the tool. But God is principally to praise for the fact that my work with its changeable fates has awakened in the soul of the German nation the inspired interest common to all, and therefore uniting all the members of the nation.

THE RULERS AT WAR

KING ALBERT OF BELGIUM.

THE first "people's King" of Belgium, acknowledged as such by a nation of democrats, is Leopold II's nephew, Albert I, who at this moment leads the Belgian Army in a war that heralds the birth of a new world, wherein the diplomatic shams and egoistic politics of the past must perish, and the people itself become the diplomatist, in and through its representative organism—the National Assembly. King Albert is the son of the late Count of Flanders and was born on the 8th of April, 1875. He was brought up as a child with conspicuous simplicity and he was educated by tutors who did not spare the boy. Until his eighteenth year, he was treated by his unsympathetic uncle in the manner of a Turkish Sultan towards a destined successor.

In order to enable him to speak Flemish with a perfect accent, he was provided with a valet who could not speak a word of any other language. Even as a boy, he took great interest in mechanics.

Had destiny not given him a Throne, had he been compelled to work for a livelihood, there is no doubt that His Majesty would have become a remarkable engineer.

In 1890, at the age of fifteen, Prince Albert entered the military school of Brussels. He remained several years there, and the tuition of this establishment was invaluable; it was quickly noticeable that this extraordinarily studious young man would one day show conspicuous mastery of military science. In the meanwhile he studied diplomatic history with the late Baron Lambermont, the distinguished Belgian diplomat.

Despite his studies, the young Prince found time for sport, for travel, for lecturing and for social cares.

In 1892 King Albert, then of course Crown Prince, entered the regular Army, and was introduced to the regiment, Brussels Grenadiers by King Leopold in a striking speech which is worth quoting from. "I am very happy to bring you my nephew." He said, "he is a fine-shaped grenadier. His sentiments are in harmony with yours. He knows that officers— whatever their social standing may be—must have the love of work, the religion of duty, a boundless devotion to national independence." And the King turning towards his nephew added "My dear nephew, you have taken in your hand the illustrious colours which symbolise our Fatherland. As long as your heart beats don't forget the flag."

On the 2nd of October, 1900, he married the Princess Elizabeth of Bavaria, who is a woman of cultured and domestic tastes. She is known as one of the most learned Princesses in Europe. They have three children: Prince Leopold, Prince Charles, and the Princess Marie Jose.

After his marriage, his constitutional bashfulness disappeared, and his sympathetic personality became noticeable. This is chiefly due to the training he had undergone at the hands of his own father. King Albert had visited every court in Europe and assisted at the negotiations of important international affairs concerning Belgian interests. His travels and close association with all classes made him thoroughly democratic.

Albert has always turned his mind towards the problems of social progress, towards the improvement of the condition of the labourers. He has visited a great number of manufactories, in Belgium and elsewhere; he has never shrunk from the duty of "living the life" of working people. In 1897, at Seraing, near Liege, he went down in a coalpit and worked at the painful work of digging; one other day he acted as a stoker in one of the Belgian steel-foundries; he travelled as engine-driver from Ostend to Brussels, the fate of the whole train being entrusted to him.

Love of science, interest in workers, confidence in the commercial expansion of his country, these are the general ideas to which Prince Albert has shown an absolute faithfulness, as long as he was a Crown Prince.

His uncle, the late King, was the King of the *Bourgeoisie*, and his favourite motto was "Get rich."

King Albert is a quite different man. He is the first Belgian King who goes to the working class with words of encouragement and of sympathy. He feels that the force of the future neither rests with the aristocracy nor even with the middle class; it rests with the people, and it is on

the people he wants his throne to rest. King Albert's characteristics are forcibly portrayed in the following description given by Father Vaughan :—

A thorough gentleman, a thorough soldier, a thorough scholar and a thorough Catholic. * * * "His life, good and simple, devoted to study and to patriotic voyages of observation and of public service, his generous nature and blameless record made him the most popular of heirs-apparent and the most promising of future kings.

Need we say that during the few years of his reign he has amply fulfilled the hopes of his subjects?

He succeeded his uncle Leopold II, on the 17th of December 1909.

And of his mental equipment, it has been said that his conceptions, his plans, his enterprises may not be as vast as those of his predecessor, his intellectual suppleness may not be as strong as that of King Leopold II, but Belgium has found him as well-balanced, moderate and industrious. King Leopold II was a conqueror; Albert I is a ruler who wanted nothing better than that Belgium should be left in peace to improve what had been acquired and to reap the profits therefrom without enlarging it.

He is essentially a man of peace, but the determination and the heroic courage that is being displayed in resisting the invasion of the flower of the German Army shows that like King Leopold he has not forgotten the menacing shadow of the German eagle. The motto of Belgium, "L'Union fait la Force," has hitherto proved apposite and true, and to-day it is serving her once again in good stead. As a writer in the *Catholic Press* points out :—

Like his uncle, King Leopold, he took part in the practical work of national development, and from his seat in the Senate inspired a number of reforms, and not a few national schemes of commercial progress. He was a fervent advocate of strengthening by every device and by State aid the commercial fleet which has been one of the great causes of Belgium's amazing industrial growth. King Albert, before ascending the throne, was also a close student of the more abstract side of Statecraft the modern pursuits of sociology and political economy, and among his most intimate and cherished friends have been the savants, professors of this deparment of study at the Universities. He himself was an able lecturer, and frequently appeared on public platforms. Industrial progress; literature and education are subjects upon which he is said to have spoken with brilliance frequently in Brussells.

And as has been seen, his own military training has not been neglected. "Prince Albert as Crown Princes always do, "rushed" through the various military grades, and two years before he succeeded to the Throne he was promoted to the rank he now holds." For the last eight years he has been a General in the Belgian Army, and his preparation for this post was a most rigorous one. It is interesting to learn that a favourite march of the King's is "Loyante au Roi," composed by the bandmaster of the 13th Rajputs for His Majesty, three years ago.

King Albert is said to be the only reigning Monarch who has visited the United States. Prior to his succession to the throne he made a long tour of the Congo State which revealed to him the need for thorough reform in administration which he has carried out with conspicuous success. A man of conscience and upright principles he has won the heart of the native population of Congo whose moral and material welfare are so dear to him. With his admirable solicitude for the prosperity of the Colony, and his intimate knowledge of every aspect of the native population he was chiefly instrumental in devising measures for their welfare. Belgian obligations to the rights of Congo have been equally answered by the loyalty of the subjects.

But, before his accession in 1909, at the age of thirty-five, King Albert showed little or no sign of the multiform energy which he has since developed. He was (and is) pacific. He was absorbed in philanthropic schemes. He was a diligent student of sociological subjects. Working-class organisation interested him profoundly; and the artisans of Belgium knew it well.

"His ambition of fostering art and literature is as conspicuous as the indifference of the two Leopolds. But during the last three or four years, the question of national defence has mainly occupied the King's mind; and the law of 1909, raising the strength of the Army has had no more ardent supporter than Albert the First. Yet it cannot be too clearly realized that King Albert is a peace lover, representing in this respect his eight million subjects, whose progress in industry and commerce, art and literature, education, and social organization, is remarkable."

The *Infanta* of Spain in describing him recently says :—

He is one of the few Sovereigns in Europe, who have clearly seen the power and virtue of the Modern Socialist Movement; and he seems to me to be alone in his ability to lead it beneficiently for itself and its opponent. He has made it an effective engine of social reform instead of a desruptive force of revolution. He is a man of such quiet tact and modesty that he is little known in Europe, but that does not prevent him from being one of the wisest and cleverest of its Rulers. His country has an importance far beyond its size. His ability is a factor to be reckoned within world politics; and his

success in the internal affairs of his kingdom could give lessons to half of the Government of Europe.

His personal appearance is thus described:—

A tall, slender man, with light hair, blue eyes, there is King Albert of Belgium, who as Commander-in-Chief of his brave army is now one of the most interesting personalities in Europe. His attitude has something gentle, timid, modest and kind, which appeals to all who see him, and he looks as simple and acts as simply when he is taking part in an important Court function or when he adresses a meeting of workmen.

Here is another tribute to the character of King Albert both as man and King:—

Duty and simplicity, those are the two watchwords of the new King's life. Albert I, is a moderate, well-balanced, and industrious King. And Belgium hails him as much as she has hailed him as a man of conscience and of firm principles. As a man he sets an admirable example of modesty and domestic rectitude. His love of privacy, his little taste for official etiquette, his *bon garconnisme* give him the hearts of his people.

A close view of the Young King of the Belgians is given by Mr. M. H. Donohoe, the *Daily Chronicle* correspondent:—

The King of the Belgians has been amongst his soldiers throughout the day comforting and encouraging all ranks by his presence. The King hates display and ostentation, and likes to move quietly and unobtrusively in order to see things without, if possible, being seen and recognised.

He is a sympathetic figure in a plain blue uniform, without any insignia whatever to denote the exalted rank of the wearer. He is no feather-bed soldier. He has passed nights in bivouac amongst his gallant soldiers who are so bravely defending the Fatherland against Germany. He usually travels in a motor-car driven by a soldier chauffeur, and attended by a single officer.

The King with his equally plainly clad Aide-de-Camp, insisted on making his way to a place where things were happening. I encountered him several times during the course of the day, and in the bustle and confusion of war it is not, perhaps, to be wondered at if the King of the Belgians, walking down the main street of a certain town, rubbed shoulders with officers and men of the national army without being recognised. The tall, fair man in dust-covered uniform and wearing pincenez, moved unconcernedly in the midst of his fighting men. Nobody bothered about him, because the very simplicity of his attire attracted no attention. Yesterday during his peregrinations he made his way to the military hospital, where there were many wounded Belgians as well as Germans.

Late yesterday I came across the Ruler of Belgium seated by the side of the road eating sandwiches and drinking water from a soldier's water-bottle. His Spartan-like simplicity is one of his characteristics. He travels without escort of any kind, and when his automobile is held up on the road by Civil Guards or simple peasants acting as police he produces his War Office pass, counter-signed by the General of the Staff, in which are set out his name in full, his place of birth and his profession, 'King of the Belgians.'

Altogether Albert, King of the Belgians is a lovable figure, full of enthusiasm and patriotism, and determined to resist to the last the incursions of the German Kaiser into the peaceful Kingdom of Belgium.

M. Poincare, the French President.

A remarkable man whom I would like to meet.—
The Kaiser.

IN 1870, France was broken and beaten by the serried masses of Prussia. Paris itself was violated, and the French nation was inevitably forced to lose much of its national sense of power. The wonderful recuperative force shown in financial and economic matters had not its counterpart in the sense of national strength. France was then, "a soldier, grasping still his broken sword—wounded, but still proud and valiant." These words are those of M. Raymond Poincare, the President of the French Republic, whose election signifies so much to France and to the world. It is not simply that the new head of the French Republic is the first able President since Thiers, or that his many qualities and international reputation will do much to raise the estimation in which the Presidency is held; it is that his election is an open declaration to the world that France—the new France—is herself again, full of national pride based on knowledge of national strength, and ready again to play her part in national happenings.

The *entente* with Great Britain was one of the prime factors in this national reawakening. It played a much greater rolè than did the alliance with Russia, since its stimulus was both more wholesome and more bracing. It was based on a frank recognition of neutral interests and essentially upon a common and very real desire for peace, on the part of both nations.

For the first time it is of interest to Europe and to the world to know something about the French President; the time has passed,—let us hope forever—when the occupant of the Elysée created no more interest than does the name of a new Swiss President.

M. Poincare was born on the 20th August, 1860, at Bar-le-Duc. He has had a remarkably rapid and brilliant career. "A true son of Lorraine, he possesses all the characteristics of his country—tenacious will, methodical thought, perseverence in work, precise realism, rejecting vague ideals, smiling irony, and good-natured malice, boon of exact observation. His tastes and aptitudes are Catholic, and his career has proved that he was equally competent in science or letters, in philosophy and artistic sense." He was elected Deputy before he reached the age of 27. He adopted the career of a lawyer, passing first through a short period of journalism. He soon

made his mark in the Chamber, and devoting himself to the study of finance, discovered a happy formula, "fiscal courage." He forced his way to the front first among the younger generation, and, in 1893, he was the Minister of Public Instruction and Beaux-arts. He was successively Minister of Finance, and again Minister of Public Instruction. In 1895, he left the Ministries and devoted nine years to his career at the bar, gaining both wealth and reputation. He continued however to serve his country as Deputy or as Senator with praiseworthy seriousness. In 1904 and 1906, he again controlled the finances of France retiring later to private life, until, in 1912, he came forth as the Prime Minister at the head of a National Ministry. He was elected President on the 17th January 1913, and assumed office in February.

" His election was a great personal triumph, as well as a triumph for the moderate and unaggressive elements of French republicanism, who saw in him, a man who would be strong enough to increase the authority of the Government at home, which, of late years, had tended to become the obedient servant of political factions. He is no figure-head, nor does he aspire to be a dictator; but he does mean to use the constitutional powers of President for the furtherance of the honour and glory of France. The President, through his power of making and unmaking ministers, has really a very unique position and is much less vulnerable to attack than a constitutional sovereign. We may take it that M. Poincare is going to be a President in the fullest meaning of the word, morally supported by his knowledge that new France approves the new President." These words were written shortly after his election to the Presidency. And we may say that, in the year and a half he has been President, he has amply justified the hopes formed of him.

M. Poincare is ever possessed by one dominating idea running through everything he does or attempts. This *leit—motif* is " France resolutely served and closely loved." One of the unforgettable memories which to-day direct M. Poincare's thoughts is that of the arrival of the Prussians and the redoubtable Bismarck in the town of Bar-le-Duc. This foreign occupation of his birthplace some forty years ago had much to do with the quickening of Poincare's profound and reasoned love for his lesser and his greater fatherland. All his life, he has had many friends, and few enemies—and this in spite of his constant habit of sticking to his guns and working steadily towards his ends.

A writer in the *Daily Chronicle* thus describes the President.

" In France he stands for high ideals of a Government, for honesty and inflexibility of purpose."

" We must always hold it our duty," he declares, " to say to the nation what we believe to be the truth, and not to present unrealisable things as easy of accomplishment."

He happens to be one of the few public men in France who do not look to politics as the most lucrative and therefore, the highest, goal of earthly ambition.

He has always carefully stood aloof from plotting for personal aggrandisement, and from the unworthy intrigues which in recent years have so blackened the escutcheon of the Republican party in France. The breath of scandal has never touched him. If he previously refused power it was chiefly because he despised the narrow, parochial spirit of politicians and the bitter strife of quarrelling political entities.

The ideas and beliefs of M. Poincare are to be found in his speeches and writings. On the vital points he has never varied.

" Do not confound," he writes, "energy with pride, ambition with covetousness, love of independence with the hypocritical suggestion of a spirit of indiscipline "

" You will perhaps hear, in dark moments, some, who have learnt nothing from history, uttering blasphemy against the idea of patriotism. Do not be influenced by them; disdain these criminals or pity these madmen: remember always the solidarity of tradition and go forward with hope."

" For a nation to be strong and respected, it is indispensable that it should have a Government which is resolved to assume the responsibility devolving on it, and to exercise without weakness all the authority that it can derive from your confidence.

. . . .

" A Government worthy of the name ought to endeavour to assimilate whatever is best in the national aspirations, and to co-ordinate the energy distributed over the country.

. . . .

" It is in ourselves, in our firm and common desire to assure the continual supremacy of the general welfare over private interests, that we shall find the surest means of correcting habits of which you and we are the first victims."

PATRIOTISM AND TRUE VIRTUES.

"However good a reform may be, it will never possess its full virtue unless it is inspired by the wind that blows from the summits. And that wind from the summits is goodness, justice, love of truth; it is the respect of the human conscience; it is full faith in the destinies of the country."

" The first duty of the Government is to re-establish in the Chambers and in the country the idea of Government itself."

In a speech on Patriotic Education he said :—

" Do you counsel them never to neglect the sacred duties of a future in trust which are incumbent upon

THE TSAR OF RUSSIA AND HIS FAMILY.

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY OF JAPAN.

every modern community whose desires and efforts are devoted to developing the welfare of the people in freedom of labour and in peace . . . and that those nations which are the most resolutely pacific ought to be strong to be able to defend against all aggression their material and moral inheritance?"

FOREIGN RELATIONS.

"Our alliance with Russia and our *entente* with England remain the main pivots of our foreign policy. If ever any Government should attempt to deviate from this line traced out for us, it would dash itself to pieces on the rock of national indignation. Republican France is a friend of peace, but she realises that the present guarantee of her peace rests on her military and naval power as well as on her sound financial institutions, which enable her to defend with attention and perseverance all her rights and interests."

"France, in desiring to be strong and powerful, intends only to devote her strength and power to the service of peace and civilisation."

FRANCE AND PEACE.

"The Government has desired, above all to secure in our diplomatic action, singleness of aim, consistency, and clearness. Its endeavour has been to make it impossible that anyone in Europe should be under any misapprehension as to our pacific intentions or as to our determination to defend the interests and dignity of France, or as to our firm purpose to maintain and cultivate our alliance with Russia and our cordial understanding with England."

The key-note of M. Poincare is one of triumphant and confident optimism in the present and future of his country. He is the sounding board of the French nation, and his creed, as theirs, is summed up in these words:—

"You will love humanity......but this will not make you forget that side of humanity, the most choice, the most *in time*, and the most dear,—the Fatherland: "*you will be men; you must be before all things Frenchmen!*"

His philosophy of life is coloured by a larger vision. He has said:—

"Our youth is passed in continuing the education of our childhood; our mature age in perfecting that of our youth; our old age in regretting the impossibility of concluding the education of our maturity.

"But we leave behind us a little of this education never wholly completed and this little enters into the common fund of humanity for the well-being of future generations."

The French President recently paid a visit to King George in England and cordial speeches were made on the occasion.

Soon after his arrival in London the French President caused the following message to be circulated:—

Not only in Europe but throughout the world the restless billows on the ocean draw together and unite the shores of the two great Colonial Powers in a constant exchange of ideas and interests.

Does not the very nature of things will it, that the two peoples, of Great Britain and France should be ever associated for the progress of civilisation and the maintenance of peace in the world? Never, perhaps, have the necessity and benefits of solidarity in good made themselves more strongly felt than in the course of recent events.

Never could the President of the French Republic be given a happier moment to bring the cordial greetings of the friendly nation to the Sovereign who continues with so much wisdom and loyalty the noble traditions of his race.

At the State banquet given by the King at Buckingham Palace in honour of his distinguished guest, His Majesty gave the following toast:—

The relations which for centuries past have existed between our two neighbouring nations have permitted each to profit from the intellectual culture and material prosperity of the other. A result of this has been a progressive increase in respect, goodwill, and mutual agreement. Since the signature in 1904 of the diplomatic instruments which so amicably put an end to our differences, the two nations have co-operated harmoniously and cordially in matters of international concern, and have felt themselves drawn together by mutual interests and identity of purpose. Our Governments have constantly in view the maintenance of peace, and on both sides we are making every effort to attain that noble end.

I esteem myself specially fortunate in having as my guest a statesman of such high repute and of such distinguished services, whose name is not only prominent among public men, but has also a place in that famous Academy which has for nearly three centuries been the glory of France and the envy of Europe.

In the course of his reply M. Poincare said:—

The friendship which unites the two nations is to-day deeply implanted in the popular spirit of both. History and time are destined to cultivate it. It was in genesis in the traditional esteem which the centuries have developed between Great Britain and France, and which has not failed to grow even during past differences.

The day which happily settled questions which in several parts of the globe seemed to bring our respective interests in conflict, two peoples at last decided to give reign to their natural feelings; their mutual respect has little by little increased the affection and the courtesy of their old relations, and without trouble has added to itself a confident intimacy.

During the grave events which have succeeded one another for several months, which have so long held Europe on the alert and which do not yet cease to cause serious consideration, our two Governments have been able to appreciate everyday the benefits of an *entente*, which has permitted the establishment of a constant collaboration, to study in common accord the problems set, and to act freely in concert upon desirous solutions.

In this daily co-operation they have not ceased to devote themselves to avoid the extension or the resumption of hostilities and to avoid conflicts between the Great Powers, of which the consequences would have been incalculable.

Like England, France is happy to be able to work in this cause of peace with the persevering assistance of all the Chancelleries, and she will continue, with the same spirit, to endeavour to secure that harmony of which Europe has given an admirable example shall not be troubled in the future.

These speeches gave the utmost satisfaction both in France and in England; they supply the key-note of the visit, the emphasising of the *entente* between the two nations.

M. Poincare is the author of an interesting book on "How France is Governed." This study was prepared by him, sometime before he became President of the French Republic. It is a history of the methods of Government in France, written in such plain and lucid language, so innocent of embellishment or phantasy, that the boy or girl just about to leave school might find not only advantage but pleasure in the reading. Each chapter takes a different section of Government, for instance, the Commune, the State, National Sovereignty, the President of the Republic, or Public Education. Each begins with a *resume* of the history of the ancient rules, and shows the manner in which these have gradually developed into the methods of the present day. The chapter on Military Service, with its call to patriotism and its depreciation of the inequalities of conscription during those years when rich men could obtain substitution for their sons for money payment, is keenly interesting at the present day.

He opens his treatise with a Chapter on Civil Rights and Duties, and in dealing with Social Assistance and Assurance, the statement which follows shows what is his ideal of citizenship.

There is something higher even than individual charity, and that is social solidarity. A democratic society ought so to govern itself that its members, as far as is possible, make one another better and happier. They should mutually help and improve one another. We have just seen that the Republic contributes to intellectual and moral improvement by means of education. It also contributes to the development of well-being by social assistance and assurance. It does not leave the care of the sick and poor entirely to private beneficence. It requires the departments and communes to join the State in assisting the aged, the infirm, and the incurable. It makes education, compulsory. It wishes the industrial or agricultural workers to impose certain sacrifices upon themselves in order to create pensions, and in order to reward them for the effort thus made, it assists them in the formation of these pensions; it pays out money from the public funds in order to complete the savings of private persons.

He closes this remarkable book with the call to all to give up individual considerations before the necessities of national security. If, he says, we have one day to fight for our country, let us show ourselves worthy of her, and ensure by our patriotism and our courage the victory of the right. There is no doubt that these words have not fallen on deaf ears, for we know the glorious way in which the Frenchmen distinguish themselves in this titanic struggle against Germany.

Francis Joseph Emperor of Austria.

FRANCIS Joseph, the present Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, was born on the 18th August 1830. At the time of his birth his grandfather, Francis, was still on the throne. In 1830, a complete Chinese wall separated Austria from the rest of the world, and most particularly from the neighbouring Germany. And absolutism in its most naked form, flourished.

Francis Joseph, the eldest son of Archduke Francis Charles and of the Archduchess Sophia, a Bavarian princess, was from the day of his birth considered the heir to the throne, as his father's elder brother Ferdinand, who reigned from 1835 until 1848, had no children, and was always in a very delicate state of health. The young prince therefore received from his boyhood the education which at that time was considered necessary for a future Emperor of Austria. His principal tutor was Count Coronini, a conscientious man withal, but somewhat narrow-minded and a martinet. Like every prince of a continental dynasty, the young Archduke had to go through all the routine work of a soldier from the lowest rung of the ladder, and to get quite proficient in the general work of an officer in the army. All the other branches of a general education were, however, not neglected. All his teachers praised particularly their pupil's great scrupulousness and strict sense of duty.

The young Archduke's first official appearance in public took place on October 16th, 1847, in Pest, when, as representative of the Emperor Ferdinand, he 'inducted' the Archduke Stephen as Governor of the County of Pest. Francis Joseph on that occasion made his first public speech, and that in the Hungarian language. He expressed his great satisfaction that his official participation in affairs of State took place in beloved Hungary. "Good-bye, days of my youth!" These were the words of Francis Joseph when in the early morning of December 2nd in the year 1848 his father informed him that the Emperor Ferdinand had abdicated, and that he renounced his right of succession to the throne in favour of his eldest son.

On March 13 1848, the revolution broke out in Vienna. And all the visible paraphernalia of a free country were granted or at least promised. Nevertheless Vienna grew turbulent every day. The King of Sardinia had declared war against Austria and Francis Joseph was sent to Verona

to join the Austrian army in Italy. All the eye-witnesses of the battles during the month of May in Lombardy reported that the young Archduke had shown great personal courage and had behaved altogether very creditably. Francis Joseph was recalled to Austria soon after, but during that short period, he, who was until then a gay lad, had become a more serious young man. The events in Hungary, almost as threatening and dangerous to the Empire and to the Imperial family as the war in Italy, convinced the Archduchess Sophia and her advisers that Austria required a stronger man at the helm of affairs than the weak, half-witted Emperor Ferdinand. And the Emperor was made to abdicate in favour of Francis Joseph.

Viribus unitis. This was the motto which the new Emperor chose as his guiding maxim. Never were united forces more required, never was the monarchy more disunited than at the time when Francis Joseph ascended the throne: In Hungary and Lombardo-Venetia, open civil war; in Vienna, dull despair of a sullen population under martial law; in Bohemia, suppressed rebellion, and martial law in Prague. Such was the state of affairs in the Emperor's realm when he issued his first manifesto, "To my peoples" (there is no people of Austria, only various peoples), in which the new monarch addressed his subjects in the following words: "Fully recognising and convinced of the necessity and the high value of free institutions, we set out with confidence on the road which shall lead us to the happy reconstruction and rejuvenescence of the whole monarchy. On the basis of true liberty, on the foundation of equal rights for all peoples of the monarchy, and of the equality of all citizens before the law; on the basis of the participation of representatives of the people in legislating for the empire, the fatherland will rise again in rejuvenated power." Noble words indeed! We shall see how these promises were fulfilled.

The war in Italy ended successfully for the Austrian army. In Hungary, however, things went badly for the Austrian arms. But the retribution against the rebellious Hungarians, was terrible. The hangman and the "shooting squad" were kept very busy during the autumn and winter of 1849. Hungary was declared to be only one of the Provinces of Austria. Their old constitution forfeited, their Parliament non-existent, the country itself was subdivided into five prefectures with Austrian employes at the head; the ancient laws of Hungary were abrogated, and the Austrian codes introduced. Political life was totally and completely extinguished. This was the reconciliation and the promised regeneration. Hungary was a subjugated province with a vengeance. And, in Austria proper, the political state of things went from bad to worse. From 1853, Francis Joseph reigned and governed again as the absolute monarch of his "beloved peoples of Austria." The Sword and the Crozier became master of all the territories under the sceptre of the Emperor. While the Emperor was taking his daily constitutional walk about noon on February 18th, 1853, a Hungarian journeyman-tailor suddenly threw himself upon the Emperor and with a long knife stabbed the monarch in the neck. The buckle at the back of the Emperor's military cravat broke the force of the stroke, and the Emperor remained in bed only about a fortnight. The assassin acknowledged that he intended to kill the Emperor, because he had taken away the liberty of Hungary.

In the month of August, 1853, at Ischl, where the Emperor usually resided in summer, he met for the first time his cousin, Princess Elizabeth, the second daughter of Duke Max in Bavaria, and of Duchess Ludovica, his own mother's sister. The Emperor paid a good deal of attention to his fair cousin, and on August 19th, Francis Joseph, after mass in church, introduced Princess Elizabeth to the officiating Parish priest with the words, "Reverend father, give us your blessing; this lady is my affianced bride." During the first few years of their marriage the Imperial couple seemed to live very happily together. Several children were born to them; on August 21st, 1858, the Crown Prince, who received the name of the founder of the Hapsburg dynasty—Rudolf.

The internal policy of the Emperor became during these years, from 1853 until 1859 entirely absolutistic. And in 1859, war broke out with Italy. In April, the Austrian army crossed the Ticino. The war proved disastrous to Austria and in November peace was concluded by which Francis Joseph ceded Lombardy to Napoleon, who immediately made over that country to Victor Emmanuel. In a very sad and dejected mood the Emperor returned to Vienna. But the "peoples" of Austria did not at all share his sadness. To them the defeats in Lombardy opened the outlook for a better era, the end of the unabashed absolutism, which had broken down completely on the plains of Lombardy.

The Emperor was one of the first to recognise the necessity of breaking with the system which had prevailed in Austria since 1853. On October

20th, 1860, the Emperor issued a public document, that Austria henceforth should be governed again by a constitution, and not quite under an absolutistic system. But all these measures were only half-hearted and the Hungarians would have nothing to do with these concessions granted as a kind of gift by a monarch whom they did not recognise as their king. The Czechs of Bohemia also declined the new fangled Reichsrat in Vienna. And a mere Rump Parliament was opened by the Emperor on May 1st, 1861. All this sham constitution did not satisfy the Hungarians nor the Czechs. More serious events had still to move the heart and mind of the Emperor, before he could be convinced of the necessity of breaking completely with his former political systems and shams and of becoming in reality a constitutional monarch.

The war about the succession in Denmark and the Schleswig,—Holstein Duchies and the absence of the King of Prussia from the Congress of the Princes of Germany summoned by the Austrian Emperor led to misunderstandings and difficulties between Austria and Prussia; it became clear that the question of the hegemony in Germany would have to be fought out between Austria and Prussia. The internal situation in Austria was beset with difficulties. And in September, 1865, the constitution was again suspended.

In 1866, Austria had to fight against two foreign enemies—Prussia in the north, Italy in the south. After one of the shortest campaigns of the century, the battle of Sadowa was won by the Prussian army. This battle decided the war. Peace was concluded on August 23rd, 1866, by which Austria was completely excluded from Germany and made to lose Lombardy.

The lesson of the war was a terrible trial for Francis Joseph; but it proved to be a good lesson, taken to heart by the Emperor. He became a real, true constitutional Prince, who never went back any more on his public declarations; at home and abroad he became the beloved, trusted monarch, and as time went on he was looked upon by the whole of Europe as one of the most revered Princes in Christendom.

The first task which the Emperor set himself consisted in the conciliation with Hungary. In the month of May, 1867, the Emperor announced to the Austrian Reichsrat in Vienna that he had succeeded in effecting a satisfactory arrangement with Hungary, which guaranteed its co-ordination with the entire monarchy, and the internal peace of the realm as well as its power abroad among the other nations of the world. Hungary got back its ancient constitution, it obtained complete Home Rule, independence in all internal affairs of the Kingdom of the St. Stephen's Crown; it became the Hungarian State with Count Julius Andrassy as first Prime Minister of the Hungarian Cabinet, and the Hapsburg monarchy became the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, its monarch the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary.

In Austria proper the work of regeneration also proceeded at a brisk pace during 1867. In the month of October, the Reichsrat in Vienna passed the so-called fundamental laws of the State and the *Ausgleich* with Hungary. And during a period of thirty years from 1867 to 1897, the Emperor Francis Joseph as Supreme General Conciliator and honest, loyal, constitutional ruler, gained very much in the estimation of the world. Very deep grief was, however, caused to the Emperor in 1867 by the shooting of his brother, the Emperor Maxmilian, in Mexico, by order of a court martial. One of the most important political events for Austria and its monarch was the conclusion of the treaty of alliance with Germany, which, soon afterwards, by Italy joining the same, became the Triple Alliance.

On the 29th January, 1889, the Crown Prince Rudolph died a violent death in a hunting lodge not far from the capital. How he met his death will probably never be definitely known. After this terrible mysterious catastrophe, the life of the Emperor and that of the Empress became very sad indeed. The Emperor has led and still leads a very anxious life in his public as well as private relations.

But the greatest tragedy of his life was yet to come. His favourite brother was shot by court martial; his only son, his heir to his throne, died a violent mysterious death; his wife's sister was burnt in Paris at a charity bazaar; and last, but certainly not least of all horrors, his wife, the Empress, was also assassinated.

But when one knows, as we do now, that the Heir Apparent to the Austrian throne and his consort have been cruelly shot dead, and that this incident has led to a titanic war which, whatever else it may or may not do, certainly threatens the continuance of the Austrian Empire, one may well ask whether in all history, there is a more tragic figure than the aged Emperor Francis Joseph.

Nicholas II, the Czar of Russia.

NICHOLAS II, the Emperor of Russia was born at Petrograd on the 18th May 1868 and succeeded to the throne on the 1st November 1894. His mother, the Empress Marie, is sister to Queen Alexandra. His personal appearance is thus described :

In appearance the Czar is very good-looking. Although not tall, he is very well proportioned and of fine physique. His hair is of brown colour. His complexion is somewhat swarthy, but this seems to add to the character of his face. His countenance is particularly open, and his dark glittering eyes are keen and penetrating. There is a twinkle about them which adds a liveliness to his features, and his expression betrays an unmistakable sense of humour. He has a charming and ingratiating manner. In his conversation he has the knack of putting everyone at their ease, and if it were not for a certain quiet dignity and an indefinable suggestion of strength, it would be difficult to remember that this companionable host is Emperor of All the Russias. He bears a certain resemblance to his cousin, the King of England: but the likeness is not so remarkable as photographs would lead one to suppose. He favours the Slav rather than the Dane in appearance.

There is a general agreement that as a boy Nicholas II, lived in considerable awe of his father; but that he was bright, intelligent and very much like an English school-boy.

His father wished him to be educated as a national Russian, and therefore engaged only Russian tutors. The military Governor, Bogdanouitsch, seems to have exercised the greatest influence over him.

Here is an interesting description of the Czar as a school boy.

During his boyhood the progress in school-work was somewhat slow, not because he was dull, but on account of his frequent physical indisposition to attend the lessons. Nicholas Alexandrovich was a sickly boy whether because he could not well endure the severe climate of Russia, or because his father insisted upon a system of hardening which was too rigorous for his frail constitution, must be left undecided. His early reading consisted chiefly of Russian Masterpieces fit for his age, but scarcely less time was spent upon the reading of "Grimm's fairy-tales," Fenelon's "Telemaque," and Walter Scott's as well as Charles Dickens's best works.

Nicholas II married the Princess Alix of Hesse-Darmstadt in November 1894. The Empress is thus described :

She is remarkably handsome, and her features still afford sufficient evidence of that peerless beauty which in former days was the admiration of an entire continent. Her stateliness and her grace of movement are singularly appropriate to the exalted position she occupies, in fact few women have ever looked the part of Empress more to perfection than she. Her expression, although rather sad, is reposeful, and without a trace of the nervousness and anxiety which it must have often been her lot to endure. Her dark blue eyes have in them an expression of kindliness and sympathy. Her face when she speaks lights up with a radiant smile. She has the habit of inclining her head to one side, when conversing, which was characteristic of her grandmother, Queen Victoria. The Czarina has a quiet, soft way of speaking which is remarkably attractive, but the most noticeable characteriste is her wonderful natural dignity and grace of movement.

Four daughters came first, but a son was born on the 12th August 1904, and was named Alexis.

The Coronation of the Czar took place with impressive ceremonial at Moscow in May 1896. And in August 1896, he commenced a tour which included visits to the Emperors of Austria and Germany, to the King of Denmark, to Queen Victoria, and to the President of France.

Opinions have been freely expressed about the character of the Czar and they vary to a most extraordinary extent. But those who know him really agree in their impressions of him and only such impressions are given below.

Far from being detested by his people, Czar Nicholas is perhaps as much loved by the Russians as was the late king Edward by the English. He is the most erudite sovereign in Europe and a man of far greater intelligence and cosmopolitan knowledge than either the Kaiser or the Emperor Francis Joseph. The American Ambassador Mr. Meyer found in him "a monarch who reverenced his conscience before everything, and, who without phrases and protestations was only afraid of one thing—of doing anything that he felt was false to his duty or dishonourable to his country."

On the 30th of October 1905, the Czar was put to a very severe test and the son of the mighty Romanoffs was not wanting in the hour of trial.

He had to do that which many autocratic sovereigns had to do,—and unsuccessfully,—to sacrifice the privileges and perhaps also the devotion of the beaurocracy in order to benefit the plebiscite,—and to do it with his own hand,—unassisted, from that seat of a great Loneliness, the Autocratic Throne. But the Czar did it.

The late Mr. W. T. Stead speaking of the creation of the Douma and the destruction of the Dictatorship—says :

"The Autocrat faced and felt the autocratic will of his people; and the two wills became one. This dynamic identity may be termed the self-limitation of autocracy, but it is a self-limitation which means "self-realisation." The Czar had struggled against the system of his fathers and he won. The Imperial Proclamation, sounded the keynote of the Imperial character. "We therefore command the Government to put into effect "Our Inflexible Will." This "Inflexible Will" of the Czar had won for him the Battle of the People.

The following story is told of the Czar which

shows that he is disposed to encourage the freest possible communication between himself and his subjects.

The Emperor was driving unescorted in a plain carriage through a street in St. Petersburg. A shabby-looking individual threw a bulky envelope towards the carriage, but missed his aim, and the little parcel fell under the wheels. Some passersby shouted in terror, frightened by the thought of a Nihilistic bomb, and instantly a number of policemen in uniform and citizen's dress—it is surprising how they grow, like mushrooms, on such occasions in the streets of St. Petersburg—surrounded the Imperial carriage and tried to grasp the envelope. But the Czar too had seen it, and ordered his *aid-de-camp* to hand it to him. He opened it quietly, read carefully the letter it contained, and said warmly to the petitioner, who stood trembling near by, "I shall do everything you ask for in this letter; do you hear? Everything as you wish it!" And then he addressed the surrounding police sternly, "You let this man go, and mind well: don't you dare to hurt a hair of his head, or to molest him in any way—you or anybody else!"

Soon after his accession to the throne, a character sketch of the Czar appeared in *Harper's Magazine* by Professor E. Borges and the following extract from it is interesting.

If all signs do not deceive, the character of Nicholas is a fortunate and favourable blending of the most desirable and praiseworthy qualities of his parents. One thing is sure: Nicholas Alexandrovich is imbued with the warm-heartedness of his mother and the imperturbable veracity of his father. Four qualities, partly inherited, partly acquired by education, shine forth in the character of Nicholas II. Like his father, he loves the truth, and hates hypocrisy above everything. Like his father, he is religious, an ardent supporter of the Greek Church, and an ultra-Russian, although he may lean more to liberal innovations.

The home-life of the Czar and the Czarina is thus described. The writer insists on the great difficulty of obtaining access to the Imperial Household, and the precautions to prevent gossip.

But once within the charmed circle, nothing can exceed the sociability of the Czar. He imitates our own late Queen in having coloured attendants, one of whom is a West Indian. English habits and customs, English literature, English music, English plays are conspicuous above those of other nations. Christmas is celebrated in semi-English fashion, and the Czar's children have as head nurse, an Irish lady.

The Czarina, though not very popular at Court, largely on account of her total abstinence from tobacco and her purely domestic tastes, she is yet a power in the land. The women workers of Russia feel that in her they have a powerful friend, and the words "We'll appeal to Alexandra Feodorovna" have often saved them from hard labour regulations.

The following extracts from the admiring description of the Czar, by the late Mr. W. T. Stead will be found interesting reading. The Czar is full of vitality, quick and active in his movements and fond of out-door exercise. Certainly no one meeting him for the first time would put him down among the weakly. He is as quick as a needle, and quite as bright. This exceptional rapidity of perception is united with a remarkable memory and a very wide grasp of an immense range of facts.

Nicholas II. is no longer a boy. He has borne for several trying years the burden of one of the greatest Empires in the world. But he is still as absolutely simple and unaffected as he was when Mr. Gladstone met him in Copenhagen fifteen years ago. There is still in him all the delightful schoolboy *abandon* of manner, a keen sense of humour and a hearty, outspoken frankness in expressing his opinions which make you feel that you are dealing with a man whose character is as transparent as crystal. Add to all this a modesty as admirable as it is rare, and it must be admitted that even if the net human product should fall short of being a great ruler, he has at least all the qualities which make men beloved by their fellows. The bright, clear, blue eye, the quick sympathetic change of feature, the merry laugh, succeeded in a moment by an expression of noble gravity and of high resolve, the rapidity and grace of his movements, even his curious little expressive shrug of the shoulders, are all glimpses of a character not often found unspoiled by power.

He is loyal in his friendships, and slow to part with any of those who are in his own or were in his father's service.

Nicholas II has inherited from his father the hatred for falsehood, and he has added thereto the industry of a singularly active mind almost painfully overwhelmed by the immensity of his responsibilities. He has, moreover, the divining faculty of intense sympathy.

It is not till we come to the third act of his reign that we have the first distinct revelation of the kind of Emperor with whom the world has now got to reckon. This was the Czar's Peace Manifesto to the Nations Imperial. The following is the text of the Imperial Rescript:

By order of the Czar, Count Muravieff, on August 24th, handed to all the foreign representatives accredited to the court of St. Petersburg, the following communication:—

"The maintenance of general peace and a possible reduction of the excessive armaments which weigh upon all nations present themselves in the existing condition of the whole world, as the ideal towards which the endeavours of all governments should be directed.

"The humanitarian and magnanimous ideas of his Majesty the Emperor, my august master, have been won over to this view. In the conviction that this lofty aim is in conformity with the most essential interests and the legitimate views of all Powers, the Imperial Government thinks that the present moment would be very favourable to seeking, by means of international discussion, the most effectual means of ensuring to all peoples the benefits of a real and durable peace, and above all, of putting an end to the progressive development of the present armaments.

"In the course of the last twenty years the longings for a general appeasement have grown especially pronounced in the conscience of civilised nations. The preservation of peace has been put forward as the object of international policy; it is in its name that great States have concluded between themselves powerful alliances; it is the better to guarantee peace that they have developed in proportions hitherto unprecedented their military forces, and still continue to increase them without shrinking from any sacrifice.

"All these efforts nevertheless have yet been able to bring about the beneficent results of the desired pacification. The financial charges following an upward march strike at the public prosperity at its very source."

"The intellectual and physical strength of the nations, labour and capital, are for the Major part diverted from their natural application, and unproductively consumed. Hundreds of millions are devoted to acquiring terrible engines of destruction, which, though to-day regarded as the last word of science, are destined to-morrow to lose all value in consequence of some fresh discovery in the same field.

"National culture, economic progress, and the production of wealth are either paralysed or checked in their development. Moreover, in proportion as the armaments of each Power increase, so do they less and less fulfil the object which the Governments have set before themselves.

"The economic crises, due in great part to the system of armaments *à outrance*, and the continual danger which lies in this massing of war material, are transforming the armed peace of our days into a crushing burden, which the peoples have more and more difficulty in bearing. It appears evident then that if this state of things were prolonged it would inevitably lead to the very cataclysm which it is desired to avert, and the horrors of which make every thinking man shudder in advance.

"To put an end to these incessant armaments and to seek the means of warding off the calamities which are threatening the whole world, such is the supreme duty which is to-day imposed on all States.

"Filled with this idea, His Majesty has been pleased to order me to propose to all the Governments whose representatives are accredited to the Imperial Court, the meeting of a conference which would have to occupy itself with this grave problem.

"This conference would be, by the help of God, a happy presage for the century which is about to open. It would converge in one powerful focus the efforts of all the States which are sincerely seeking to make the great conception of universal peace triumph over the elements of trouble and discord.

"It would, at the same time cement their agreement by a corporate consecration of the principles of equity and right on which rest the security of States and the welfare of peoples."

There is one thing about the Rescript which no one can deny. It was splendidly audacious as well as magnificently ambitious.

Mr. Stead went on to add "Those who know him (Nicholas II) best and have worked with him assure me that the impression—due to his modest self-suppression during the years of his novitiate—that he is not a man of strong character is an entire mistake . . . . I think I have said enough to justify my belief that Nicholas II is no unworthy champion of that war, against war his proclamation of which has brought such a flood of new life to the hopes of mankind."

Strange though it may appear to those who have always been accustomed to regard Russia and the Czardom as synonymous for brutal indifference to human suffering, the Russian people and the Imperial family have ever been distinguished for the intensity with which they recoil from the spectacle of pain.

For the native races the Czar has a deep personal feeling of sympathy which would enable him to be made an honorary member of the Aborgines Protection Society. He is under no illusions as to the seamy side of Colonial expansion. To the natives it seems to him to bring opium, alcohol, foul diseases, and all manner of demoralisation.

The following incident throws some light on the fear of a Russian invasion of India.

When the present Emperor was a young man on his travels he met Lord Roberts, who chaffingly asked him when the Russians were coming to take India. "Never," he replied energetically. "I could not conceive a greater disaster for Russia than that we should ever make the attempt." "Oh you don't expect me to believe that!" persisted Lord Roberts." "Some day we shall have to fight you here." "No," replied Nicholas; "such a thing is altogether outside our ideas. It would be madness. Look at the immense distances, the enormous difficulties of transport, the loftiest mountains in the world to cross—it is impossible." "All the same," said Lord Roberts, "you will come some day. There is not a village in India where there is not to be heard the traditional prophecy that some day a white people from the North will conquer India." "Then why in the world," retorted the young man, "should you not claim that you are the white people of the prophecy? You are white, you come from the North; why should you do yourself the harm of always assuming that the prophecy is still unfulfilled and that it relates to us?" A very shrewd observation, which from so young a man was somewhat noteworthy.

The Emperor is by no means deficient in shrewdness. There is a vein of quiet humour about the Emperor—which is one of the best gifts the gods give to men.

There are many, of course, who believe that the Czar is a great despot and that he stands in the way of all reform in Russia. The answer to such criticisms is found in the following passage.

If the Russian Army had been victorious the Tsar would have been in a stronger position. But, unfortunately for him, it has not been victorious, and his Grand Dukes are not above reminding him that it was his infatuated devotion to peace which is responsible for all Russia's disasters.

KAISER WILHELM II.

WILLIAM II, German Emperor and King of Prussia, is the eldest son of the late Emperor Frederick III by Victoria, Princess Royal of England. He was born on the 27th January 1859, and succeeded his father on the 15th June 1888, his mother, the Empress Frederick, surviving till 1901.

From his sixth year onward, uninterrupted study and military discipline were the daily lot of Emperor William. At ten years of age, he was a lieutenant in the historical Foot Guards. A Crown Prince of the Hohenzollern Family ceases to belong to the nursery after his tenth year, and becomes subject to the military discipline of a governor and the regulations of his regiment. As Colonel of the Red Hussers, the young Crown Pringe William gave his entire attention to regimental organisation with all the ardour of youthful ambition. He continued in this capacity for some years with an earnestness of purpose which attached favourable comment from the late Emperor, Von Moltke and the other military leaders of that day.

The Prince devoted his spare hours to the study of current events and the intricacies of diplomacy. When barely thirty years of age, he was commissioned to represent the German Court in important functions at home and abroad.

The Emperor is unquestionably a faithful, conscientious and hard worker. Like his famous ancestor, Frederick the Great, he is reported to have said, "my calling requires application and industry. My mind and body bend beneath the weight of duty. That I live is hardly necessary, but that I shall work is imperative."

The Emperor loves nothing better than recreation in his family circle. Frequently, he steals half an hour from his busy engagements to consult the Empress on important matters. It is said, however, that the Empress is careful never to exceed the privilege of wife and mother.

Next to his family the Emperor loves his horses, and is never happier than when making a round of his stables at Potsdam and Berlin, where his stud runs into hundreds.

There is also a humorous side to the Emperor as a man. Once a week, when at the old castle in Berlin, he has a so-called "Bierabard" in a special room with a dozen or so of his inmates. A small keg of "spaten" is put on tap, and the jolly crowd disperse themselves like a lot of boys out of school. His daily life is rigidly regulated by his physicians with much out-door exercise, which has given him a healthy colour.

Of his kindliness and humour new stories are told almost daily.'

Thus while on board his yacht off Kiel, recently, the seaman Jorg happened to cross the deck with a large mug of beer in hand. On seeing the Emperor the clumsy sea-dog hesitated, shifted and finally straightened the free hand to his side, and made "front." The Emperor was much amused at the man's discomfiture, and approaching him said: "Look here, Jorg, you didn't do that right; let me show you how it ought to be done. Stand over there and fancy you are the Emperor, and I will salute you." With this the Emperor took the quart mug, retreated, and came again forward, simulating well-affected bashfulness; then, putting the mug firmly to his lips, emptied it to the last drop and placed it on deck, and straightening up with military precision he saluted Jorg. "This is the way it ought to be done," he said to the astonished slaman, "and now go downstairs and tell them to fill it up again, and to give you another for yourself. Say it was I who drank it; that they shouldn't mind, for it really tasted very good."

When not taking part in public functions, he is a perfectly natural man, with nothing of the *poseur* about him. He frequently acts on first impulses, more particularly in his private relations. He loves to surprise friends and frequently brings about humorous situations. While insisting that humour should ever move on lines of refinement and decay, he often disregards the rigid rules of etiquette in his personal relations.

As a soldier nothing can exceed the energy and determination with which he fulfils his duties.

What he gets through during the manœuvres excites the admiration of everybody. You should see him on his charger, galloping over the scene of operations at a pace which his suite can hardly maintain, following the movements of the troops with a keen eye, and often, by a brief word of command, altering their direction. He concerns himself at such times about the smallest detail; keeps his eye on every company which is within sight; and often goes himself to see whether his orders have been carried out to the minutest particulars. Frequently he changes the position of the outposts at the last moment, and at times visits them quite unexpectedly by night to see that they are in order. While the manœuvres are going on he never knows that physical weariness is: often leaving his quarters at three or four o'clock in the morning, and not returning to them till six or seven in the evening. The intervening time is passed mainly on horseback. A good and sure rider, he turns up with his staff, as a rule, quite unexpectedly, in different places; takes over the command; and is always concerned in the first place for the men, their personal comfort being plainly his special care. His criticisms are calm and to the point.

It is manifest that with so much business to transact, the Emperor can have but little time for reading. He, however, manages to keep himself well posted in the most important military works that appear at home and abroad.

KAISER WILHELM OF GERMANY.

THE TSAR AND HIS HEIR.

HIS MAJESTY KING GEORGE V.

As regards *belles-lettres*, he prefers historical novels; though he does not neglect the more important works published in foreign countries. He also keeps a careful watch on the progress of art, both at home and abroad. As soon as the news began to spread of Professor Röntgen's discovery of the X-rays, he sent a telegraphic invitation to the Professor, and listened for hours to his demonstrations with the closest attention.

Personally the Kaiser lives a simple life.

Practically speaking, the German Emperor is thus obliged to live on his royal income of £800,000 per annum, which is altogether insufficient for his requirements. The Kaiser has no personal extravagances, but lives a simple and strenuous life of hard-work and little luxury. He spends little money on his table, for the cuisine of the German Imperial residence is notorious for its inferiority.

The German Emperor with an annual income of approximately one million pounds sterling, is a poor man, and has great difficulty in making both ends meet. He does not receive a farthing in his capacity as German Emperor, but fulfils the duties of this honorary position free of charge to the federation of German States. The Kaiser draws his income, first, as King of Prussia, and second, as a private landowner.

But there is the other side of the picture. For, not without good reason do his witty Berlin subjects say with bated breath, that their Emperor is suffering from "defilirium tremens." Omniscience he claims as one of the attributes of his kingly Majesty: popular wit expresses this in the words, "God knows everything, but the Emperor William knows everything better.'

Here is a pen-picture which shows what a great gulf separates the aristocracy at the head of which is the Kaiser from the people in Germany.

A violent conflict between this autocratic, headstrong monarch and the people seems unavoidable. The Social Democratic party is gradually approaching the point when it will be eager to measure swords with the "divine right" king, and to fight for the people's rights against the monarch by the grace of God. The army, as a machine for the purpose of mowing down "rebellious subjects" is expected to do its duty should the occasion arise and the order be given to shoot. But suppose the soldiers, the sons and brothers of Social Democrats, should hesitate to obey?

And thus it happens that "German policy is to-day absolutely and completely under the influence of the German Emperor. He is the only motive power in political life, and his decisions are hardly affected by his responsible advisers. But, as the result of his character, he has superseded all the Ministries, and surrounded himself by all the ambitious, all the sycophants, all the mischief-makers, and all the intriguers."

In Germany in the best informed quarters it is believed that the course which the Kaiser is steering will inevitably lead to disaster; and the flatterers and time-servers who surround the monarch keep him in a state of delusion as to the true state of the country.

On social questions the Emperor seems to have very clear and decided views, and to be possessed with a very real fear of socialism.

As regards his powers of speaking, he is an orator, and no mere maker of phrases. His speeches have this quality that raises them far above the average—they are the words of a man who is in dead earnest.

The Kaiser leaves no means unused for the purpose of impressing his personal ideas upon the nation. Speeches from the throne, which used to be impersonal and unimpressive documents have become sensational events, reverberating through the whole Empire, and stamping in advance as his personal opponents, nay his enemies, all those persons who resist the measures which he recommends. He spends a great deal of time in keeping the army perfectly under his own control. It is credibly asserted that he personally knows one-half of the 25,000 officers in his army. Through his military cabinet he knows everything about everybody, especially about the corps of officers. He dispenses awards and punishments at will, and never loses an opportunity of fraternising with the officers at luncheons or banquets given at their barracks, to which he invites himself. He personally knows every one of the ships in the German Navy and all the Naval officers under his command.

He appeals to the love of decorations which characterises the German people and every January he holds a *Fete* of decorations, when from 5,000 to 8,000 citizens are newly decorated. They are drawn from every walk of life, and invited to Court, regaled in the old castle, and all their names and addresses are published in full in the official organ of the Empire. He has vastly increased the splendour of his Court, renovated and embellished his palaces, and spared no pains to make his banquets the best in Europe.

Not content with doing these things, which are legitimate enough, he has overridden the Constitution by disregarding the express provision drawn up by Bismarck to the effect that every public utterance of the Emperor, oral or written, must receive the sanction of the Imperial Chancellor. By this means it was sought to secure to the Germans liberty of criticism for anything that the Kaiser might say. But public declarations have been made scores of times by the Kaiser, condemning or approving men or measures, without previous consultation with his Chancellors; and if anybody criticises these utterances he is

liable to be prosecuted for *les-majeste*. The Kaiser has done incalculable harm by lowering national standards of political thought and liberty. He has practically destroyed the freedom of the Press, which is supposed to be guaranteed by the Constitution. Honest expression of opinion, whenever it contravened his ideas and convictions, has been so persistently and severely punished that it may be said to be effectually muzzled. During the fourteen years of his reign he has never pardoned a single one of those who have offended against his dignity, or even shortened in any instance their penalty.

Again, in German literary and art life the personal influence of the Kaiser has been noxious in the highest degree. He has substituted tame mediocrity for the most promising and interesting movement in literature and art of modern times.

And the Kaiser has monopolised the direction of the foreign policy of Germany ever since the retirement of Bismarck. He has made the Chancellor a mere figure-head. He has become the most prominent demagogue in the Empire. Into every political campaign he has thrown fire-brands in the shape of mottoes, pithy and apt sayings, sarcastic allusions, or ironical retorts. Every weapon of warfare has been successfully employed by him. Yet although he has been checkmated now and then, and despite occasional rebuffs, he has in nine cases out of ten had his own way, and is likely to have it in the future. His influence to-day is felt more strongly than that of any other political factor in Germany.

Perhaps one of the most sensational acts of the Kaiser soon after his accession to the throne was the dismissal of Bismarck.

In November 1907, the Emperor paid a visit to England where he was warmly welcomed. The *Times* wrote then: "It is certain that there are, and always must be, points of rivalry, and to a certain extent, points of antagonism, between Germany and Great Britain. It is no insult to Germany to recognise the fact that, in a country which discussion kept weak for centuries and which union has suddenly made immensely strong the natural desire for expansion feels itself checked by the existence of other powers which were great when she was small. There is, however, no reason why these instinctive feelings should be allowed to become instinctive hostility." The event has, however, proved that those instructive feelings have become if not instinctive hostility.

In October 1908, the *Daily Telegraph* created a great sensation by publishing the report of a conversation with the German Emperor. The conversation was one long protestation of the Kaiser's anxious desire to be friendly with England. The Kaiser repeated the story that he saved England from a European coalition during the time of the Boer War, when Russia and France desired to humiliate England to the dust. But the fact remains that the Kaiser tried at the time of the Jameson raid to form a European coalition against England.

The late Mr. Stead's comment on the Kaiser's statement is interesting and prophetic.

> The net effect of the Kaiser's statement has been to deepen the conviction of Englishmen as to the necessity of maintaining the supremacy of their Fleet. * * * The only security against unfriendliness on the part of our neighbours is to have a Fleet so strong that they will not dare to indulge their unfriendly sentiments at our expense. * * * * * * * After this warning it would be madness for us to hesitate for a moment as to laying down six *Dreadnoughts* next year, which must be built if we have to maintain our two-to-one superiority to Germany. * * *

It is rather amusing to read the description of the Kaiser as a man devoted to peace, in the light of recent events:

> It is not war Germany seeks either on land or sea, and if further evidence is required to prove the truth of this assertion we find it in the fact that since the German Emperor ascended the throne he has never drawn the sword. Like ourselves, the object of Germany is peace, and it is to secure that end that she considers it necessary to have the best army and the best fleet the nation can provide. And why not?

We now know what the German navy and army were preparing for. One feels, though perhaps not quite justly, that those pacifists who saw in the Kaiser what they wanted to see in him and tried to paint a picture of the Kaiser as thirsting for peace did a piece of disservice for their country. But they were actuated by the highest of motives. What can be said, however, of the man who, all his life has been trying to make the world believe that nothing was further from his mind than war and who now has drawn the whole of Europe into war by setting at defiance all rules of International Law? Evidently the Kaiser fondly believes that might is right. It is to be hoped, in the interests of humanity and civilisation, that the Kaiser will live to learn that might is not right and that there is a moral governance of the world.

HIS MAJESTY KING GEORGE.

IF it be true that England expects every man to do his duty, as Lord Nelson put it, it is no less true that England expects every Sovereign of hers to do his duty by her and by the Empire of which she is the proud possessor to-day. And a grateful people have endorsed again and again that at least for the last three generations the Sovereigns of England have done their duty nobly for England.

King George during the few years of his reign has proved to be a factor of great potentiality for good alike in Great Britain and in the Empire.

"'A sailor is never off duty,' save in the phrase, not even in sleep, and invaluable as his disciplined activity, scarcely less valuable is his disciplined inaction; and for a constitutional monarch to have been trained to habits of obedience, until they have become a natural instinct and of the very texture of a self-denying and self-controlling character, is to have perfected an attribute of sovereignty of infinite power for good in shaping the destinies of people committed to his sway."

Prince George was born, soon after one o'clock on the morning of June 3rd, 1865. The Christening of the infant Prince George at Windsor Castle was a stately affair. The Prince and Princess of Wales (Edward VII. and Queen Alexandra) kept their children with them as much as possible, even taking them on journeys, up to the time when school-days had to begin in earnest, and some separation was inevitable. The two small boys (Prince George and his elder brother), indeed, were as familiar figures as their parents at this time. But as the education of princes must begin early and even in childhood, there were few really idle moments for Prince George or his brother. As the livelier of the two and the more daring, Prince George occasionally managed to indulge his love of mischief, and won for himself the title of "the Right Royal Pickle."

During the first twelve years of his life, Prince George as younger son took a place of secondary importance. King George inherited a love for the sea. His natural love for the sea may have been stimulated by hearing the stories of Charles Kingsley and of Canon Dalton, his tutor.

The Prince of Wales very early decided to give his sons a first-hand acquaintance with facts, and the chance of receiving their own impressions, and of learning how to conduct themselves in many situations. In January 1877 Prince Edward and Prince George found themselves cadets on board the training ship, *Britannia*.

But the true apprenticeship to the sea began when the royal brothers joined the *Bacchante* off Cowes, on August 6th, 1879, and for practically three years knew no other home.

During these three years, the Prince served in several ships of the Mediterranean Fleet. In May 1890, he was appointed to the command of a first class gunboat, the *Thrush*. On returning to England came promotion to Commander in 1891. In January 1901 he became Rear-Admiral, in 1903 Vice-Admiral, and on March 1st 1907, he reached the rank of Admiral. It was not, however, until 1908, during his visit to Canada for the tercentenary festival that on the *Indomitable* he hoisted his flag for the first time in command of a seagoing squadron.

In 1891, Prince George made a tour in Ireland. Then followed the tragic death of Prince Edward in 1892. And Prince George had quietly to set himself to learn a new way of life, to take up the study of kingship, to become his father's right hand, so that he might in due course become Prince of Wales, and finally ascend the throne. The Prince rose equal to the occasion and became a student of men, using every possible opportunity to meet them, in Parliament, in social service and in many spheres of activity. Soon followed the marriage of the Prince with the Princess Mary.

During the first year of their married life the Duke and Duchess of York paid a series of visits within the kingdom, receiving wedding gifts, addresses, the freedom of cities and other honours. In 1894, a son was born to the Duke and Duchess. The year 1897, memorable as the year of the celebration of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, was made memorable also for the Duke and Duchess of York, by the birth of their daughter and third child. Between August 17 and September 18, 1897, the Duke and Duchess made an extended tour in Ireland.

In the upbringing and training of their children the Duke and Duchess of York started with the ideals set before them in their own young days.

"If it be indeed true that 'the people......in its heart of hearts look to see, the highest do the common duties of life better than all,' then it is certain that to the first family in the land, they look not in vain."

Early in 1901, the Duke and Duchess of York made their long colonial tour which was a thorough success.

On their arrival home, the Duke and the Duchess were welcomed on board their ship by the members of the Royal Family. King Edward expressed the heart-felt congratula-

tions of the Royal Family and the nation on the accomplishment of the great mission. The Duke acknowledged the thanks of the nation in a sincere and significant speech, the concluding part of which ran as follows :—

If we have gained your approval and that of the nation, we are indeed fully rewarded for any sacrifices we have made and any hard work we have gone through in the course of a tour which will ever remain a memorable chapter of our lives.

It was as Prince and Princess of Wales that Their Royal Highnesses were welcomed by the City of London.

The Prince said :—

If I were asked to specify any particular impression derived from our journey, I should unhesitatingly place before all others, that of loyalty to the Crown, and of attachment to the Old country ; it was touching to hear the invariable references to *Home*, even from the lips of those who never had been or were ever likely to be in these islands. And with this loyalty were unmistakable evidences of the consciousness of strength, of a true and living membership in the Empire, and of power and readiness to share the burden and responsibility of that membership.

Their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales visited India and thus strengthened their title to being called "living links of the Empire."

In the very first speech which the Prince delivered in India, he said :

From my youth I have associated with the name of India the qualities of kindness, loyalty, courtesy and bravery, and I doubt not that these early ideas will be confirmed and strengthened by the experiences which await me in the next few months.

After a triumphal progress through India and Burma, visiting cities of ancient historic importance, modern capitals and Native States, where the Royal travellers not only attended the official and ceremonial functions arranged in their honour, but also found time to learn something of the way in which the Indian lived in his own home, they bade farewell to the East at Karachi in a speech summarising their experiences of the remarkable tour and revealing their kindly personality.

On their return to England, the Prince and Princess were welcomed by the Corporation of the City of London. The speech made by the Prince on the occasion was characteristic. Lord Morley ardently welcomed the Prince's speech because he believed that it would have the effect all over India of uniting the Government and the governed.

He said :—

I have realised the patience, the simplicity of life, the loyal devotion, and the religious spirit which characterise the Indian people. I know also their faith in the absolute justice and integrity of our rule.

I cannot help thinking from all that I have seen and heard that the task of governing India will be made the easier if we on our part infuse into it a wider element of sympathy. I will venture to predict that to such sympathy there will be an ever abundant and generous response. And may we not also hope for a still fuller measure of trust and confidence in our earnest desire and efforts to promote the well-being and further the interests of every class ?

He went on to say :—

I would strongly suggest to those that are interested in the great questions which surround the India of to-day, to go there and learn as much as is possible by observation on the spot. And I cannot but think that every Briton who treads the soil of India is assisting towards a better understanding with the Mother Country, helping to break down prejudice, to dispel misapprehension, and to foster sympathy and brotherhood. Thus he will not only strengthen the old ties, but create new ones, and so please God, secure a better understanding and a closer union of hearts between the Mother Country and her Indian Empire.

There were years in the life of the King as Prince of Wales when he was not on one of his world-wide tours and was occupied quietly and unostentatiously in making himself useful to his country.

In 1903, the Prince and Princess of Wales were installed at Marlborough House in all the rights and privileges belonging to their title and position. In 1905, the Prince of Wales was made Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports in succession to Lord Curzon, but in 1907, he resigned the office, "much to the regret of all." When he visited Wales in 1905, "Wales made him realise what being her own Prince meant." Then followed the departure for India. The Prince of Wales, who went again to Canada to represent King Edward at the celebrations in connection with the tercentenary festivals at Quebec, was "the guest of the whole Canadian people, and his visit was the climax of the festival."

The sudden death of Edward VII. made the Prince of Wales King George V. In the preparations for the funeral of King Edward, and in his own duties as the new King, the King had no moments to spare.

Answering the Viceroy's Message from India, King George sent through the Secretary of State for India a reply to the Government, the Princes and peoples of the country, which appealed very strongly to the Indians. He said :—

From my own experience, I know the profound loyalty felt for my throne by the Princes and people of India, to whom I desire that my acknowledgement of the homage they have tendered to me on my accession may be made known.

The prosperity and happiness of my Indian Empire will always be to me of the highest interest and concern

as they were to the late King-Emperor and the Queen-Empress before him.

In a further message to the Princes and people of India, he said :—

By the wish of His late Majesty, and following his own example, I visited India five years ago, accompanied by my Royal Consort. We became personally acquainted with great Kingdoms known to history, with monuments of a civilisation older than our own, with ancient customs and ways of life, with native rulers, with the peoples, the cities, towns, villages, throughout those vast territories.

Never can either the vivid impressions or the affectionate associations of that wonderful journey vanish or grow dim.

Firmly I confide in your dutiful and active co-operation in the high and arduous tasks that lie before me and I count upon your steady response to the earnest sympathy with the well-being of India that must ever be the inspiration of my rule.

Such a message naturally awoke the greatest enthusiasm throughout the length and breadth of India.

India had the honor of a second visit from His Majesty and that time as its Emperor. The visit of Their Majesties to India in the year 1911-12, was signalised by the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi and by the practical undoing of the ill-conceived partition of Bengal. And during Their Majesties tour in India for the brief period of five weeks, there was a splendid display of warm-hearted loyalty, which characterised every stage of the tour.

Replying to the address of the University of Calcutta, His Majesty said :—

It is to the Universities of India that I look to assist in that gradual union and fusion of the culture and aspiration of Europeans and Indians on which the future well-being of India so greatly depends. I have watched with sympathy the measures that from time to time have been taken by the Universities of India to extend the scope and raise the standards of instruction. Much remains to be done. No University is now-a-days complete unless it is equipped with teaching faculties in all the more important branches of the sciences and the arts, and unless it provides ample opportunities for research. You have to conserve the ancient learning and simultaneously to push forward Western science. You have also to build up character, without which learning is of little value. You say that you recognise your great responsibilities, I bid you God-speed in the work that is before you. Let your ideals be high and your efforts to pursue them unceasing and, under Providence you will succeed.

Six years ago I sent from England to India a message of sympathy. To-day in India I give to India the watch-word of hope. On every side I trace the signs and stirrings of new life. Education has given you hope; and through better and higher education you will build up higher and better hopes. The announcement was made at Delhi by my command that my Governor-General in Council will allot large sums for the expansion and improvement of education in India. It is my wish that there may be spread over the land a net-work of schools and colleges, from which will go forth loyal and manly and useful citizens, able to hold their own in industries and agriculture and all the vocations in life. And it is my wish, too, that the homes of my Indian subjects may be brightened and their labour sweetened by the spread of knowledge with what follows in its train, a higher level of thought, of comfort, and of health. It is through education that my wish will be fulfilled, and the cause of education in India will ever be very close to my heart.

Such is the character of the man whom we are proud to call our King-Emperor to-day. The Indians look forward with high hopes to his reign which, they trust, will be marked by that sympathy between the rulers and the ruled for which he has pleaded so strongly and so eloquently and which will effectively help to raise India in the scale of nations. The hope of India and of the Empire may well be expressed in the words of William Watson :—

And may the inscrutable years,
That claim from every man their toll of tears,
Weave for your brows a wreath that shall not fade,
A chaplet and a crown divinely made,
Out of your people's love, your people's trust :
For wanting these all else were but, as dust,
In that great balance wherein kings are weighed.

KING GEORGE'S SPEECHES IN INDIA

A COMPLETE COLLECTION OF ALL THE SPEECHES DELIVERED IN INDIA DURING HIS TOUR AS PRINCE OF WALES AND IN CONNECTION WITH THE RECENT CORONATION DURBAR

This is a complete and up-to-date collection of all the speeches delivered by His Majesty the King-Emperor during his first tour in India as Prince of Wales and his second tour in connection with the Coronation Durbar. No speech of any importance relating to India has been omitted; and to make this handy collection of His Majesty's Indian Speeches doubly valuable, a useful Appendix has been added, containing among others, the text of the announcement relating to the Coronation Durbar Boons; the Proclamations of H. M. King George, Queen Victoria and King Edward the Seventh on their accession to the throne and the messages of Queen Victoria and King Edward to the Durbars of 1877 and of 1903. The book contains a fine portrait of Their Majesties as frontispiece and seven other illustrations. We hope that this handy volume will be welcomed by the millions of His Majesty's subjects not only in India but all over the Empire.

With eight Illustrations,

Re. One. To Subscribers of the "Indian Review," As. 12.

G. A. Natesan & Co., Sunkurama Chetty Street, Madras.

THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN.

THE new Emperor of Japan was born on the 31st August, 1879, as the third son of the late Emperor. He was nominated Heir-Apparent on the 31st August, 1887, and proclaimed the Crown Prince on the 3rd November, 1889.

With the accession of the young Emperor to the throne on July 30, 1912 the age of *Meiji* the era of enlightenment which was the name of the previous reign, became the age of *Taisho*, the era of righteousness. " The period of truth and progress passed into the period of character and consummation. Out of the sombre shades of sunset and melancholy midnight arose the dawn of a newer and even more glorious age. Such is the faith and ambition of the new ruler and his councillors."

To assume the sceptre of empire as the 123rd sovereign of a dynasty born at the dawn of history is an experience possible only to a ruler of Japan. Compared with the Imperial Family of Japan all the kingly and imperial houses of the world are but of yesterday, a circumstance that adds much to the nation's veneration of its Emperor. With the unique prestige of twenty-five hundred years of family history behind him the young Emperor, Yoshihito, dons the ancestral purple to the acclaim of his sixty million subjects and the good will of the whole world! A reign beginning under such happy auspices bids fair to eclipse even the glory of the nation's past. Thus the era of *Meiji*, may truly become the age of *Taisho*, the age of Dawn and the age of Day.

The late Emperor was educated after the manner of old Japan; the new Emperor combines in his education the new as well as the old. At the age of eight years, he entered the Peers' College, and passed through the primary and higher departments with marked ability. As a youth, he was somewhat delicate of constitution, but by persistence in care for health and much indulgence in out-door life and activity, he is now physically robust and strong. Upon leaving College the young Prince received the rest of his education under private tutors at the Hoyama Palace. Up till the time of his accession, most of his morning hours were given to hearing lectures from eminent scholars and professors from the Imperial University, the Imperial student showing great interest and ability in several branches of learning, but special aptitude for Japanese and Chinese classics. Of foreign languages, he made most progress in French and attained remarkable command of that tongue. From a professional point of view, the new Emperor is a soldier, though he takes extreme interest in all matters pertaining to the Navy as well. He held the rank of Lieutenant-General in the Army and Vice-Admiral in the Navy; but now, of course, he is the Commander-in-Chief of both forces. As soon as he came of age, the Emperor, as Crown Prince, took his seat in the House of Peers, and showed unabated and intelligent interest in affairs of State.

On the 10th May, 1900, the Emperor married the Princess Sada-ko, fourth daughter of the late Prince Kujo. The Empress was born on the 25th June, 1884. Of the union were born three princes. Hiro Hito Michino-Miya was born on the 29th April, 1901. He was nominated Heir-Apparent and proclaimed the Crown Prince as soon as his father succeeded to the throne. He was appointed Sub-Lieutenant of the Army and Navy, and decorated with the General Order of Merit and Grand Insignia of the Imperial Chrysan Ahemum on the 9th September, 1912. The second son is Yoshihito born on the 25th June, 1902, and the third Nobuhito born on the 3rd January, 1905.

The new Emperor of Japan has had the advantage of a thoroughly modern education at the public school, mixing from day to day with select and worthy companions. And after reaching manhood and attaining the title of Crown Prince, he did not cease to avail himself of every oppertunity of becoming familiar with his country and people. He has journeyed at various times to different parts of the Empire, and even to Korea; so that there is not a corner of his dominions that he has not seen and explored. He is genial in manner and modest in mien, after the example of his great father, whom he admired even to reverence. It is said that once when the late Emperor and the Crown Prince were in conversation, the great Emperor said to the son: " In the past those in high estate have shown themselves lamentably ignorant of those below them, and are often haughty and arrogant. I pray let it not be so with you; but at all times be ready to help yourself!" This wise counsel the Prince has always been careful to observe. When his valet began to tie up the Prince's shoe laces, it is said that often the Prince would busy himself by attending to one of the shoes himself. Wherever His Majesty has mixed with the people he has always much endeared himself to them by his modest and unassuming ways. As a soldier he has always obeyed

the regulations to the letter, even joining the mess and partaking of the rough fare of the men, much to their astonishment and admiration. Once during manoeuvres when a private was thrown from his horse, and none of the officers appeared to notice it, treating it as a common incident, the Crown Prince jumped from his horse, and helped the fallen man to his feet, greatly surprising all the officers present. When they expressed great awe at his action, he said: "I too am a soldier!" On another occasion when His Imperial Highness was out hunting he shot a stag; and afterwards when he came in and saw the beautiful animal lying dead in front of the camp, he at once wrote the following poem:

For my own amusement
The fatal shot I fired;
But when I hear the doe's lament
The pleasures all expired!

The Japanese have long looked upon the Prince not only as one who is brave, but benevolent and tender-hearted as well.

Her Majesty, the Empress, has likewise often shown the same sterling and gracious qualities that will make her an ornament to the throne and a mother to the people. As a student at the Peeresses' College, the young Princess Sada-ko showed untiring ability in all branches of knowledge; and was especially marked for her modest and womanly demeanour. She always walked to and from school like anyone else, and in her studies never fell below fifth in her form. The young Princess ever evinced admiration and respect for her teachers and on all appropriate occasions still invites them to be present. Her method of bringing up the young Princes has won the admiration of the nation. They are being educated after the manner of their father in the plain and frugal way of the soldier. Certain companions from among the sons of the nobility are chosen for them as playmates, and they have good times like other boys, playing in the afternoons in the Imperial gardens. Not infrequently the Imperial parents join in the children's fun and add to the afternoon's pleasure. Thus the new Emperor, Yoshihito, and his gracious consort, Sada-ko represent the true Japanese family: keen and intelligent with regard to all that concerns the nation, and in character and habits, simple and unostentatious, winning the same sympathy and devotion that the nation so lavishly bestowed on the departed Emperor.

KING PETER OF SERVIA.

THE civilised world was startled in June 1903 by the news that the King and Queen of Servia had been assassinated in their palace at Belgrade by officers of the army which had sworn them allegiance. It was even more amazed when it learned that the perpetrators of the massacre considered themselves models of heroic patriotism. So with a clear conscience and an invincible conviction of their own rectitude, the Servian National Assembly, which the murdered King had caused to be elected for the purpose of appointing the Queen's brother as heir to the Servian throne, unanimously elected Peter Kara-Georgewitch to the vacant throne, after having passed what was equivalent to an act of indemnity for the assassins, or as they regarded themselves, the executioners of the late King.

King Peter was born in 1844 and is a grandson of George Czerny, surnamed Kara George or Black George, who was the first chief of the Servian insurrection against the Turks in the beginning of the last century. He was joined by Milosch, who added to his name that of his mother, Cebrena. These two chiefs founded the rival families of Karageorgewitch and Cebrenovitch.

Before his advent to the throne, King Peter was always a conspirator and a revolutionary. He took part in all the plots against the Cebrenovitch dynasty for a long time. Now it has been no mystery that he was aware of the plot of which King Alexander and Queen Darga were the victims. His complicity in the matter lies heavy upon him today. He does not approve of much that goes on in Servia, but he can do nothing, being as he is, the prisoner of conspirators.

The plan to assassinate King Alexander dates back to his marriage with Draga in 1901. Each one who took part in it signed the following vow: "I swear by all that is for me most sacred and most precious in the world that I will kill King Alexander and Queen Draga, and that I will cause Peter Karageorgewitch to ascend the throne of Servia"; but before signing, the chief conspirator went twice to Geneva to obtain from Peter a promise that when once he had become king, he would not prosecute the conspirators. The first time the promise was given orally, the second time in writing.

"Scandalised monarchs in Vienna and in St. Petersburg saluted him on his accession, but suggested more or less emphatically that his first

business should be to punish the murderers of his predecessor. England, however, with a sudden access of virtue, withdrew her representative from Belgrade, and her lead was followed by France, the United States, and several smaller powers. As for King Peter he could not help himself. He could not hang the men who had summoned him to the throne." But in 1906, King Peter dismissed the officers implicated in the murder, and British diplomatic relations with Servia, which had been suspended, were restored.

There is a curious story told of King Peter before his accession to the throne. In France, there is a Foreign Legion which may be said to be the only existing regiment which has such a motley collection of men of all nationalities as its recruits. If any person wishes to drift away from his friends and relations, or to sink his identity, it is one of the easiest tasks to perform. He has simply to enlist himself in the Foreign Legion. For their work, the men receive the princely wage of a half-penny a day, which increases to a full round-sized penny after three year's service. The prospects are not very alluring. All that you can hope for when once enlisted in the ranks is to work under a broiling sun, and if a soldier is unfortunate enough to fall out of the ranks through weakness when on the march, he is subjected to the severest punishment.

Though it will thus be seen that "milk and honey" are not premier elements of this legion, yet it is said that King Peter of Servia joined its ranks as a private and served during the Franco-German War of 1870. One day, whilst out on the march, his company was surprised by some Prussians and the majority of them captured, including the King himself. In his wallet was a purse filled with £ 400 in gold, and whilst his captors were arguing as to how they should share the spoils, their Royal prisoner jumped into a fast flowing stream and escaped.

King Peter married in 1883 a daughter of the Prince of Montenegro, Princess Goska, who died in 1890. He has two sons, Prince George who was born in 1887, Prince Alexander who was born in 1888, a daughter Princess Helena who was born in 1884, and a brother, Prince Aresenius. In 1909 Prince George voluntarily renounced his rights to the succession, and his brother Prince Alexander was recognised as heir to the throne.

With the accession of Peter Karageorgewitch to the throne, the obstacle to the realisation of the national ideal was removed, and immediately there was an outburst of Pan-Serb movement. At first all efforts were concentrated on securing the sympathies of the Southern Slavs. The "Club of Southern Slavs" was founded, and meetings, etc., were organised. At this time, King Peter was the object of enthusiastic ovations on the part of the Serbs, Bulgarians, Croatians and Slavonians and they gave him the title of King of the Southern Slavs.

THE AIM OF SERVIA.

What could be the object of Servia in seeking the assassination of Prince Nicholas? Three reasons are offered in explanation. In the first place, Prince Nicholas has always been considered the most important man among the Slavs of the South, and his popularity increased when, in 1905, he granted his people a Constitution. At the same time King Peter and his dynasty were losing their partisans, and during the last two years there has been a growing discontent with the present *régime*, so that at the Court of Belgrade there was every reason to fear the rivalry of the Montenegrin dynasty.

A second reason for the suppression of the dynasty of Prince Nicholas, planned at Belgrade, lay in the desire to realise the Pan-Serb idea. The Pan Serbs declared that this could only be rendered possible by the disappearance of one of the two existing dynasties, and Belgrade naturally favoured the suppression of Prince Nicholas.

There is no doubt that King Peter and Prince George are ardent supporters of the Pan-Servian movement.

The King is assisted in Government by a Council of State of sixteen or eighteen members, each of at least ten years' service to the State. Then comes the Skuptschina, numbering 230, one-fourth of whom are chosen by the King, the rest by the people. "Everybody who is of age and pays taxes to the amount of fifteen francs a-year has a vote."

"If the history of Servia has been stressful, it has likewise been intensely romantic and even pathetic and no one can read of the heroic deeds of this gallant race, without entertaining an intense admiration for a patriotic race possessed of great Powers of endurance, pluck and determination."

And, Servia has so far given a very creditable account of herself in the present war. It is not perhaps then too much to hope that, under King Peter, the Servian army may yet materially help the cause of the Allies in this war and thus lay on solid foundations the dream of a greater Servia.

EFFECTS OF THE WAR ON INDIAN TRADE*

BY

PROF. H. STANLEY JEVONS, M.A., F.S.S.

It has been predicted by economists for many years past that the next great European War, if such a catastrophe should occur, particularly if Great Britain were involved, would dislocate trade throughout the world and bring ruin on many thousands in neutral countries even remote from the scene of the War. The present horrible war is of wider extent, and burst upon us more suddenly than was ever thought possible; so it is interesting and satisfactory to find that, whilst the anticipations as regards the trade of neutral countries have been largely realised, lugubrious predictions as to the collapse of the trade and industry in Great Britain have been only very partially justified by events.

The effects of the war upon India have been, broadly speaking, of the same kind as those experienced by neutral countries which had traded largely with the belligerent nations overseas. The economic effects may be briefly summarised as being due to the following classes of causes :—

1. Disturbance of foreign trade due to—
   - (a) Shutting off or failure of demand, completely from enemy countries, largely from our continental allies, and partially from neutral countries owing to financial and commercial disturbance.
   - (b) Failure of supply from enemy countries.
   - (c) Lack of transit facilities—
     - (i) From insecurity of shipping, due chiefly to the exploits of the *Emden*.
     - (ii) Through the tonnage available for export trade being reduced by requisitioning of ships as transports.
   - (d) Prohibition of export of certain goods both from India and from the United Kingdom.
2. Disturbance of exchange.
3. Loss of confidence amongst Indian financiers and the public.
4. The mobilization and supply of troops.
5. The curtailment of European supplies of wheat.

It may assist our comprehension of the complexities of foreign trade if we think of the trade between countries as flowing in a number of streams across the oceans, or over the land frontiers. There are two sets of these streams—those flowing inward from various countries to India called imports, and the streams of goods flowing outwards to different countries called exports. We must think of the streams from certain countries to India, as running broad or thick, and others thin; and some of the streams of exports to certain countries being much greater than others. Every stream is, of course, composite, being made up of a multitude of consignments of goods of the most various kinds.

The relative magnitude of the streams of exports to different countries must be guaged by the money value of the goods, not by their quantities, as the goods are measured in so many different units. The following table, taken from the official statistics, gives the values of exports to each country during the last two fiscal years, ending March 31,1913 and 1914 respectively. They illustrate the character of the Indian export trade in the period just preceding the war, though it has to be remembered that it was a time of booming trade and high prices.

* Prepared as a lecture for the University of Allahabad.

Table of Exports (including re-exports) from British India to the British Empire and Foreign Countries.

Countries.	1912-13.		1913-14.	
	Lakhs of Rs.	Per Cent.	Lakhs of Rs.	Per Cent.
British Empire—				
United Kingdom	61,83	25·1	58,35	23·6
Ceylon	9,18	3·7	9,04	3·7
Straits Settlements	9,19	3·7	6,79	2·8
Hong Kong	9,50	3·9	7,81	3·2
Mauritius, etc.	1,39	·6	1,29	·5
Australia	2,94	1·2	4,10	1·6
Total (including other British Possessions)	1,01,24	41·1	94,42	37·6
Foreign Countries—				
Russia	2,03	·8	2,47	1·0
Germany	24,93	10·1	26,42	10·3
Holland	3,73	1·5	4,42	1·8
Belgium	13,17	5·4	12,10	4·9
France	15,78	6·5	17,72	7·1
Italy	6,94	2·8	7,89	3·2
Austria-Hungary	7,28	2·9	10,01	3·9
Turkey	2,54	1·0	3,04	1·2
Persia	1,12	·4	1,41	·6
Java	3,25	1·3	1,95	·8
China (exclusive of Hong Kong)	11,02	4·5	5,72	2·3
Japan	18,73	7·7	22,69	9·2
United States of America	18,88	7·8	21,85	8·9
Total (including other Foreign Countries)	1,44,85	58·9	1,54,49	62·2

For the moment I quote these figures merely to illustrate the nature of our foreign trade; and I want you to observe that for every outward stream of goods there must be inward stream of money making the payments for them, which will be equal to their value, if the latter be rightly estimated. Similarly there is an outward stream of money payments on account of the goods imported. There are debts existing and arising between countries for many other purposes than trade; and it is a fundamental principle of the economics of international trade that over long periods the total payments made outward by a country must balance the total payments inwards, and furthermore that prices and the volume of export and import trade adjust themselves in a remarkable way so as to bring about a balance of payments with the shipment of only so much gold as is actually required for absorption by the country. For instance, if there is a balance of payments inwards there tends to be an accumulation of money in the country, gold being actually remitted. This usually extends credit, and stimulates trade so that prices rise. This depresses the export trade, and stimulates the import trade. Thus payments outwards are increased relatively to payments inwards, so that the re-adjustment occurs.

In practice the device of bills of exchange enables all payments due in one direction to be set off against those due in the other, so that bullion is only sent to make up the balances. Gold is never sent both ways at the same time. It is the business of the "exchange banks" to deal in foreign bills of exchange, and the India Office also sells bills, and helps to regulate the exchange, both agencies remitting gold occasionally. The dislocation of the exchanges between the European financial centres and all other parts of the world was one of the first and most serious results of the outbreak of war.

The principle of the "balance of trade," or more properly speaking "of indebtedness," holds good over periods of a year or more in length.

Values of exports of Indian produce to certain countries during the 12 months ending 31st March 1914, are shown in this Table.

(The figures represent 1,000's of Rupees.)

Articles.	United Kingdom.	Germany.	Austria-Hungary.	China.
Barley	1,22,64	1,02	...	..
Bran and pollards ...	38,07	...	...	...
Bristles and fibres ...	12,76	...	...	..
Coffee	55,34	...	7,30	...
Coir and manufactures of ...	28,86	23,92	...	...
Cotton, raw ...	1,43,60	6,00,24	2,92,41	33,91
Cotton, twist and yarn	1,34	...	12	4,09,76
Cotton manufactures.	8,07	...	..	...
Drugs, medicines, etc	5,56	...	...	...
Dyeing Materials—				
Cutch and Gambier	5,21	...	...	...
Indigo ...	6,39	8	3,25	...
Myrobalan ...	21,40	...	...	...
Gram	10,37	...	...	...
Hemp, raw (chiefly Sann) ...	44,20	10,41	...	...
Hides and Skins—				
Raw	47,26			
Dressed or tanned ..	3,65,29	3,18,21	1,86,43	...
Horn and horn-meal ..	5,06	...	...	..
Jute, raw	11,73,95	6,74,87	1,97,91	
Jute, gunny bags ...	92,02	17,14	...	50,77
Jute, gunny cloth ...	83,86	13,07	...	
Lac	60,08	27,42	4,04	...
Manures	11,65	9,58	...	...
Metals and ores ...	52,88	...	...	...
Mica	27,42	...	...	...
Oils	23,33	10,40	...	...
Provision & Oilman Stores	5,86	...	...	...
Pulse	42,76	...	...	...
Rice (not in the husk)	1,60,46	3,14,47	2,05,90	...
Rubber, raw ...	50,42	...	...	...
Saltpetre	5,83	...	...	...
Seeds—	...	...	87,04	...
Castor	81,65	...	...	...
Cotton	2,08,73	...	...	...
Linseed	2,47,22	80,55	...	...
Rape	26,97	97,61	...	...
Silk, raw	3,84	...	...	...
Spices	11,79	...	...	...
Sugar	4,61	...	...	...
Tea	10,84,81	3,69	...	50,75
Wheat	8,54,21	...	...	...
Wood (mainly teak)...	50,80	21,31	...	...
Wool, raw	2,43,17	...	...	...
Wool manufactures..	18,27	...	...	...
Other articles ...	1,78,81	1,56,94	13,48	15,43
Fodder, bran ...	...	15,89	...	...
Fruits and vegetables.	...	5,93	...	...
Seeds, copra or cocoanut kernel ...	...	98,64	...	...
Seeds, Mowa ...	..	46,47	...	...
Seeds, Poppy ...	...	8,02	...	...
Seeds, Til ...	...	40,63	...	...
Seeds, others ...	...	39,12	...	...
Piece-goods ...	...	...	...	91
Grain, pulse and flour	...	...	...	4,48
Opium	...	...	...	4,17
Total ...	57,35,51	26,35,58	9,97,48	5,70,18

but in short periods of time there is usually a considerable excess of payments due one way or the other, due to harvest shipments, and so forth. Any such want of balance must soon correct itself, and usually does so more or less completely within the next six or nine months. The fact is often lost sight of by those who advocate protective tariffs, that the reduction of total value of the import trade must entail a reduction of the export trade nearly as great. The theory of the balance of trade also shows us that the necessary result of the considerable reduction of our export trade which the war has brought about will be a corresponding reduction of the import trade, except in the unlikely contingency of the Government of India or private companies borrowing heavily in London or America, and so importing capital in the form of goods.

The foregoing brief survey of the foreign trade of India may help to make clear what actually happened on the outbreak of war; but before considering the subsequent events and their mutual relationship, I must point out that quite apart from the war we had come to the turn of the tide of trade prosperity. The cycle of trade generally lasts either for seven or ten to eleven years. There was a boom of trade and worldwide collapse of trade in 1900, and a more severe one in 1907. There is every reason to believe that the trade boom of 1913-14 would in any case have been succeeded by a period of declining trade activity, which had just begun to manifest itself in May, June and July. It would be a statistical operation of considerable difficulty to estimate what would probably have been the course of trade had the war not occurred, and so to disentangle the effects actually due to the war, and I have not had time to attempt the task. I am only able, therefore, to describe the actual course of events, many of which were obviously solely or chiefly due to the war, and you must make a mental reservation as to declining trade prosperity being responsible in greater or less degree for many of the events.

When we examine the trade statistics as given in the monthly accounts of foreign sea-borne trade we find how complete was the stoppage of exports to enemy countries. The tremendous effect which this had upon Indian trade is easily accounted for when we realise how considerable was the trade with Germany and Austria in most of our staple raw products, and how completely it disappeared. This is well shown in the following table giving the exports of raw cotton, jute, and hides to Germany and Austria month by month:

Months.		Raw Cotton to Germany.	Raw Jute to Germany.	Raw Hides to Germany and Austria.	Cotton Twist and Yarn to all countries.
1913.					
July ...	...	04,08	17,49	29,94	78,89
August ...	...	31,28	30,62	33,70	80,25
September	...	32,54	93,41	25,64	90,63
October ...	...	43,21	86,91	29,93	96,24
November	...	13,82	59,13	17,90	91,34
December	...	41,74	92,74	18,97	62,77
1914.					
January	...	48,45	1,12,64	46,83	83,28
February	...	92,81	76,68	...	84,87
March ...	...	1,02,29	87,73	63,77	1,04,56
April ...	...	73,39	6?,96	54,13	52,76
May ...	...	1,15,10	31,67	55,?6	1,20,76
June ...	...	1,18,52	20,62	31,51	59,44
July ...	...	1,18,38	14,08	30,47	82,63
August ...	...	28,49	10,83	8,33	34,55
September	...	...	...	...	18,62
October	...	...	...	...	10,17
November	...	...	...	...	66,63
December	...	...	...	...	33,71
1915.					
January	...	...	...	...	48,35

I have added the figures of the export of cotton yarn and twist next to cloth, jute and tea, because it is the most important manufactured article of Indian make exported, and because 90 per cent. of it goes to China, and the rest mainly also eastward. Consequently the falling off in shipments of this commodity is due not to a failure of demand caused by the war, but mainly to want of shipping facilities due to insecurity of shipping and scarcity of tonnage, and perhaps partly to decrease of demand from the purely commercial cause of decreasing trade activity which I mentioned earlier. I suppose this yarn is used for weaving in China mainly by hand, and it is interesting to note that India can hold its own against all the world as regards price and quality of the class of yarns required in China.

The failure of supply cannot be so easily illustrated as the articles imported are extremely numerous, and no one of them except cotton piece-goods bulks very large. I have, however, selected some of the most important lines of goods which were formerly imported from Germany and Austria, and have exhibited the quantities imported month by month in the following table:

Months.	Dyes from Germany.	Glass from Austria.	Metals wrought from Germany.	Sugar from Austria.
1913.				
July	7,41	8,42	10,56	1,96
August	6,55	7,09	7,91	3
September ...	8,36	7,18	11,33	17
October ...	7,09	6,91	8,76	24
November ...	7,06	6,79	13,09	2,72
December ...	5,95	5,78	12,83	11,33
1914.				
January ..	7,33	6,05	13,92	32,10
February ..	6,14	6,57	12,25	21,07
March	4,95	5,74	12,66	24,95
April	4,98	6,04	16,37	19,22
May	5,43	5,86	15,62	17,29
June	5,87	5,85	15,02	1,74
July	6,91	4,70	15,14	14
August	3,37	1,23	8,18	...
September ...	2,44	19	2,56	..
October ...	92	1	...	...
November ...	29	1	...	...
December ...	17	5	11	...
1915.				
January ...	10	...	9	...

The total effect of all causes upon Indian foreign trade since the outbreak of war is best found by comparing the returns of the total value of foreign trade month by month with the figures of previous years. In the following table I have taken the percentage by which the exports and imports of each month of 1914-15 were in excess of deficiency as compared with the average of the two corresponding months in 1912-13 and 1913-14:

Percentage compared with average of corresponding months of the two (2) previous years.

Months.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Below.	Above.	Below.	Above.
1914.				
June	5	...	...	14
July	...	7	6	...
August	8	...	44	...
September... ...	53	...	58	...
October	22	...	52	...
November	25	...	15	...
December	23	...	28	...
1915,				
January	42	...	49	...

It will be seen that exports, which had fallen off a little in July before the war, suffered much more severely than imports in August; that September was the worst month for trade in both directions; that exports as a whole have been reduced by a greater percentage than imports; and that since the recovery of exports in November as the result of the destruction of the *Emden*, there has been again a marked decline.

The war entailed a very severe crisis in the foreign exchanges between practically all countries dependent upon sea transport for communication with one another. The break in the Europe-America exchanges was mainly due to enormous sales of stock exchange securities and transfers of capital consequent upon the war. The result of the inability to send gold from New York to London in the early stages of the war, owing to the presence of German cruisers in the Atlantic, was that exchange rose far above the point at which ordinarily gold would have been sent. For weeks it was quite impossible to remit money from South America to London, or from London to Singapore. The fact that the Indian exchange did not break down in this crisis is a proof of the very great advantage of Government undertaking a purely economic function, when it does so in a thoroughly well considered and whole-hearted manner. The Government of India having already accumulated a substantial gold reserve in London, formally undertook on August 3rd to support exchange by every means in its power. Numerous causes, amongst which were the calling in of capital to Europe, the inability to get payments maturing from belligerent countries, and the refusal of the British and other merchants and manufacturers to export except for cash, led to the balance of payments falling due from India to London, instead of in the opposite direction as is usual, and the Government of India, therefore, proceeded to sell "reverse bills" in India, which are drafts payable in London by the Secretary of State for India from the gold reserve accumulated there. It is important to notice that the last time exchange turned in favour of London, and "reverse bills" had to be sold in India was in 1907-08, at the same time as the collapse of trade already referred to; and it is possible that during the autumn of 1914 declining trade would again have turned the balance in favour of London and that the war only hastened and accentuated what was fundamentally the result of the trade situation.

The loss of confidence, which resulted in some

of the incipient features of a financial crisis, was probably partly of a political character amongst the uneducated classes, who did not understand what was happening, but was mainly economic, due to anticipation of a commercial crisis. It had all the usual features of the latter: financiers suddenly calling in their loans and making no new ones; the withdrawal and hoarding of gold; runs on savings banks; demand for the encashment of notes, and refusal by the ignorant to accept them in the ordinary course of business. The very strong position of the Government in cash reserves and floating balances, together with the sound position of the Presidency and Exchange Banks, saved the situation. The Government acted promptly and efficiently, for it went out of its way to pay instantly and with convenience to holders, all the currency notes presented, and all depositors in the post office savings banks. Confidence was rapidly restored in business circles when it was seen that the Government had great resources and would take promptly and efficiently whatever measures might be necessary to safeguard the stability of the currency and of the big financial institutions.

The hoarding of gold has been in some ways the most instructive economic result of the war in India. The Government had been trying to introduce gold as a circulating medium with the idea that during a crisis of exchange on London some of the gold could be withdrawn from circulation for export. However, when the crisis came all the gold immediately disappeared from circulation and there were heavy withdrawals from reserves. On August 5th, therefore, the Government refused to issue gold to private persons; and from that date onwards the issue would be made only to the Exchange banks for purposes of export. The mere fact of gold being available for export, and of the reserve existing in London, has served amply to maintain the exchange; so that no one in India has suffered by the loss of gold as a circulating medium.

This is one more proof that all the purposes of a medium of exchange and measure of value can be perfectly well served in a country with a stable Government by a purely representative currency consisting only of paper and token coins, so long as the quantity issued is strictly limited to the requirements of trade. My own view is that currency notes should be allowed to remain after the war inconvertible into gold except for *bonâ-fide* export purposes through recognised institutions or firms when the rate should be Rs. 15 for £1/-; and that the Government should only issue sovereigns to customers in India at the rate of Rs. 15/3, and bullion at, say Rs. 15/1/6 or whatever may prove to be the cost of importation and distribution to provincial centres. There is no reason why the consumer of gold for ornaments or hoarding should have the cost of importation paid by the State; nor is there any reason, if the demand for consumption could be satisfied, to lock up many crores of rupees worth of gold in the circulation when paper will do equally well. It would be an immense waste of captial that India badly needs for reproductive enterprises. If the Government has a crore of rupees to spare let it be used to import machines and hire them out, or railway material to build new lines, or let it spend the money on building houses for mill operatives, or in any other useful and income bearing way, rather than in providing a medium of circulation which is little, if at all more convenient than paper, and is more costly in wear and tear to keep up.

The rise of the price of wheat is another striking effect of the war; and we have to consider how far the rise was actually due to the war and how far to other causes. The market of wheat is world wide; and in times of peace the considerable fluctuations which occur from year to year in the price of wheat are due to a substantial variation of the grand total of the harvests of all the civilised countries of the world. In recent years fairly accurate crop statistics have been made available for nearly all countries, and these are collected and published by the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome. The Institute's figures show that the world's crops of wheat were as follows:—

1,000's of Quintals.
(Approximately 100's of tons.)

1912-13	..	895,880
1913-14	..	814,221
Decrease	..	81,659

No figures being available for the 1914 crop of France and Belgium, they are omitted for 1912-13 also. Including them would probably intensify the percentage decrease; but as it is, if we reckon the wheat harvest per head of population in each of the two years, there is a decrease of over 10 per cent. This is sufficiently serious in itself to cause a considerable rise of the price of wheat throughout the world. There are, however, two further factors in the present situation: first, a particularly short harvest just reaped for the crop year 1914-15 in the Southern Hemisphere, and secondly, the effects of the war.

The Australian harvest is, through drought, less than one-third of normal, and Australia instead of exporting must be a buyer in the world's market. The harvests are also somewhat short in New Zealand and South America, so that practically no contribution whatever to the requirements of the Northern Hemisphere will come from the Southern Hemisphere during the first half of the present year, when Europe and America are waiting for what promises to be a pretty good harvest reaped over an incresed area. The war has added its effect by very appreciably reducing the quantity of 1914 wheat available in the grain markets. Through want of shipping much wheat from distant countries either failed to reach the European markets at all, or could be brought only when the price had risen because of the high freight rates caused by the withdrawl of shipping for transport purposes. The war has also caused some actual destruction of wheat both on land and sea; but its most serious influence has been by the closing of the Dardanelles, whereby probably about 20,000 quintals of the Russian spring crop, included in the harvest figure for 1913-14 above quoted, and which would, but for the war, have come into the West European market, has been held up, and is even now lying in the Black Sea Ports awaiting shipment.

Postscript.—The important announcement of the Government of India's policy in regard to the export of wheat having been made after the foregoing lecture was delivered, I would like to take the opportunity of adding a few words in regard to it. I understand that the Government's policy will be so to regulate their purchases that the price of wheat in India may be allowed to decline gradually. The Indian price will be kept substantially below the world price, but yet at a level which will be distinctly above the average for the time of year, and will give the cultivator a handsome return, whilst easing the situation for the consumer. The profits which are likely to accrue are to be used in a special manner—I trust in some way which will be of permanent benefit in the development of agriculture. The policy is bold and masterly, and if competently carried through appears to me likely to attain the economic ideal of distributing the benefit of Nature's bounty as evenly as possible between all concerned. I consider the plan superior to an export duty on a sliding scale which was the best alternative. It would be well if the Government were to publish at an early date the figures for a series of future months of the maximum prices at which it will purchase for export. This would tend to get existing stocks, and the new harvest, on the market as quickly as possible.

INDUSTRIAL INDIA

BY MR. GLYN BARLOW, M.A.

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1. Patriotism in Trade. 2. Co-operation. 3. Industrial Exhibitions. 4. The Inquiring Mind. 5. Investigation. 6. Indian Art. 7. Indian Stores. 8. India's Customers. 9. Turning the Corner. 10. Conclusion.

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A RALLYING SONG

BY MR. STANLEY P. RICE, I.C.S.

ENGLAND.

I. White foam of breakers beating on the strand
Where the dark cliffs shelter the sea-bird's nest:
Low plash of rippling waves upon the sand,
Lulling the idle and the tired to rest:
Where amid storm and fog the headlands peer
Keeping their ceaseless vigil over the sea:—
Veiled though she be,
She whom we love with a passionate love is here.
Mother, O mother, thy sons lie scattered and [dead:
Shalt thou sit weeping, stripped of thy glory [and pride,
Weeping, forlorn, with shame having covered thy [head,
That there are left to thee none like those who [have died?

II. These be thy sons: upon a foreign shore.
They yielded up their lives in fealty,
Red harvests gathered by the scythe of war,
Sea fruit of the insatiable sea,
Dead hands that beckon with a spirit sign,
Bidding their countrymen put forth their strength
That so at length
Triumphant on thy brow the crown may shine.
Come from the winds, O breath, from the four [winds come:
Breathe on the slain, O spirit, that they may [live
Live once again and linger around that home
For which they have given their lives and [again would give.

III. Awake, awake, put on thy strength once more:
Be of good cheer, O mother, for there yet
Beats the full heart from shore to distant shore
That loves thee always and will not forget.
Gird on thy sword: from factory, town and lea
The word goes forth, and higher still and higher
Rises the sacred fire
To fight for life, for freedom and for thee.
From the seas of the South they gather together [for strife:
From the burning East they come, from the [snows of the West
Thy children are welcoming death to give thee [life,
To avenge the desolate lands and to free the [oppressed.

INDIA.

IV. Beneath the kindly sunshine and the rain
The rice-fields smile and yield their rich reward:
Living content beside the garnered grain,
The peasant dreams: unmindful of the sword
The busy city hums; with conch and gong
The temples half revealed by glow-worm lights,
Perform their mystic rites
While to the gods they chant their ancient song.
They hear not the thunderous sound of the battle's [guns
They heed not the peril, because they know not [the time
Of the visitation of death, though brethren and [sons
Slay and are slain for their sake in an alien [clime.

V. I look into the darkness and I see
Gaunt shapes of ruined temples dimly rise,
And fields despoiled of all their husbandry,
Pleading for justice to the unheeding skies.
Thine is the fault; be thine the undying shame,
For that thou lookedst on in carelessness
Nor sawest the distress
Of those that called aloud upon thy name.
By Rama's renown and Lakshmana's steadfast [faith,
By the bow that Arjuna drew and Bhima's [might,
By the song that the Master sang at the battle of [death,
Put on thine armour and help to defend the [right.

VI. I look into the twilight and one star,
The star of hope, shines through the tremu- [lous dawn:
Peace follows hard upon the heels of war,
Bringing large promise of a glorious morn.
The temple bells still ring: the fields are white
To harvest. While the flag that joins the world
Is yet unfurled
Stretch out thine hand, put on thine armour, [fight.
The trumpet sounds and bids thee awake from [thy dreams:
The voice of the mountains calls from their [forests and snow,
O ancient Mother, the voice of thy sacred streams
Calls, bidding thee rise from thy sleep and [shatter the foe.

FRANCIS JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA.

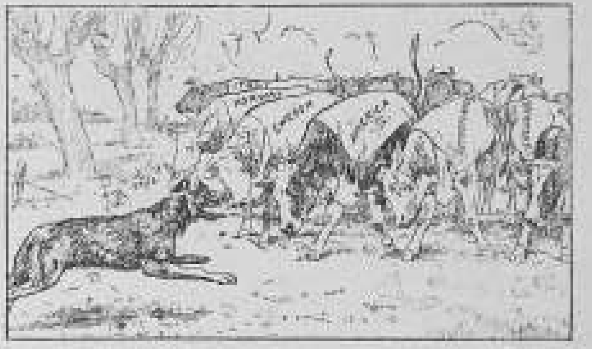
KING PETER OF SERVIA.

M, POINCARE, THE FRENCH PRESIDENT.

THE MIKADO OF JAPAN.

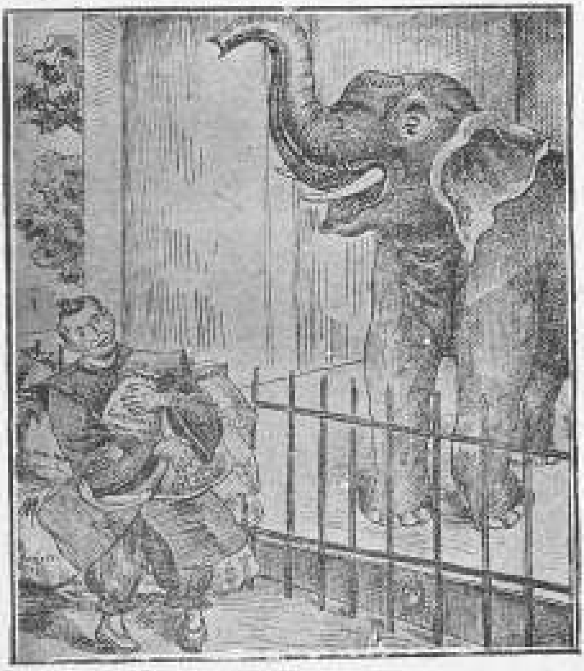
Hindi Punch.

SHOULDER TO SHOULDER.



JOINING FORCES.

"The cows gather close together when the wolf comes."
—*De Amsterdammer.*



GOOD PROSPECTS FOR JAP.

JAP—Thank you very much for putting me in possession of all this.

INDIAN ELEPHANT—Which all should have been mine, if my keepers had kept a good eye on it. Ah me!

[Japan is reaping a rich harvest in India at present by capturing several lines of German industry. Several kinds of German articles, which have ceased coming to India owing to the war, are now being supplied by Japan, India doing almost nothing in the matter of starting industries to supply its own wants.]

THE WAR AND INDIAN INDUSTRIES

BY

MR. ALFRED CHATTERTON, C. I. E.

DIRECTOR OF INDUSTRIES, MYSORE

THROUGHOUT the length and breadth of India, there is an almost feverish anxiety displayed by the Press that no opportunity should be lost to take advantage of the situation created by the War, to promote the development of local industries. The example set by Great Britain, in its efforts to capture the trade of the enemy has fired the imaginations of the people of this country, and one can scarcely take up a paper which does not contain a fervid appeal for assistance from those who are supposed to be in a position to render it. Those who display caution and take sane practical views of the difficulties to be faced are dubbed pessimists, and there is a more than faint suggestion that they do not exhibit the enthusiasm which is necessary when difficult undertakings have to be faced.

The statistics of the trade of India with Germany and Austria have been scanned with much satisfaction as the figures were large and the list is a lengthy one and the total cessation of imports from these countries is thought to afford a favourable opportunity for the advancement of the "Swadeshi" movement. At any rate, the temporary destruction of Germany's foreign trade is the opportunity for her industrial rivals, Great Britain and America. Except in a few very highly specialised branches of manufacture, English and American factories are in a position to turn out the manufactured requirements of the world, which have hitherto been supplied by Germany. The difficulties with which they will have to contend are almost entirely due to the financial situation created by the War, and this it is felt will be serious enough, should the War be very prolonged, and the accompanying destruction of capital continue at the rate of the last two months.

There is no doubt that War greatly stimulates the activities of those who are engaged in it, more especially when they happen to be on the winning side; but it produces depression and stagnation among the on-lookers. In common with the rest of the world, India is bound to suffer severely from an economic point of view, and it will be worse than folly at the present time to suggest the possibility of effecting any important industrial change during the period of actual fighting. The most that we can hope is that the War will engender a spirit of enterprise which will be of a lasting character, and which will bear fruit long after the War has ceased. The economic pressure to which India must be subjected will, in the long run, prove beneficial, if it is not met by passive endurance, but by active measures to escape its effects as far as possible. The present is not the time to start new industries, but rather to develop those which have passed the experimental stage, and are in a position to take advantage of the temporary measure of protection which a state of war throughout the world offers them. The foreign trade of India is mainly, but not entirely, the export of raw material, and the import of manufactured goods. It seems almost certain that there must be a large decrease in the exports, and therefore a corresponding, and possibly even a larger, decrease in the imports. Last year, Germany and Austria took from India, amongst many other items,

Rice to the value of	527	lakhs of	rupees.
Hides and Skins	,,	490	,,	,,
Raw Cotton	,,	890	,,	,,
and Jute	,,	873	,,	,,

It is quite certain that the demands from other parts of the world will not compensate for this loss of business, and there will, of necessity, have to be vast agricultural changes to meet the situation created by the war. Jute will probably give place to rice, and food grains will be grown in place of cotton. The available food supply of the people of India should increase, and possibly prices will fall, which will materially alleviate the distress which the sudden changes must entail. There is not the least doubt that the purchasing power of the people of India will be materially diminished, and this will lead to a decrease in the imports

as also possibly to a decrease in the demand for local manufactures.

The temporary elimination of Germany and Austria from the countries supplying India with manufactured goods will mainly benefit Great Britain and America, as both these countries are in a position to supply almost all the goods required by India. There are some items, however, about which it is probable there will be great difficulty in getting supplies, but it is extremely unlikely that they can be replaced by local manufactures. Of coal-tar dyes, the imports of last year were valued at 81·12 lakhs. Part of this will, in future, be supplied from Great Britain, but what Great Britain cannot supply it is obvious cannot be produced in India. It is hardly likely that, even temporarily, this will lead to a resuscitation of the old vegetable dye industry, as the number of men now living who really understand the art of vegetable dyeing is extremely small, and they are totally averse to imparting their trade secrets to anyone. Of glass and glass-ware, the imports were valued at 116 lakhs of rupees, and much of this there will be some difficulty in getting from English manufacturers in the immediate future. It is true that there are a number of small glass works in India, and the deficiency in the supply of imported glass should stimulate them to considerable developments. Glass bangle making is an indigenous industry which still survives, and it seems more than probable that, at the present time, it will repay careful investigation with a view to its improvement and development.

The only other speciality which seems to offer good prospect of successful development in India is the German import trade in woollen piece-goods and woollen shawls, which reached the value, last year, of 83 lakhs of rupees. There are a number of woollen mills in India which are doing remarkably well, but they are all situated a long way from the coast, and depend mainly upon indigenous raw material. There would appear to be good reason to think that a large woollen mill might be started in Madras, deriving its supplies of raw material entirely from Australia and the Cape. It seems to me that the conditions are extremely favourable to such an enterprise, and that it, at any rate, merits very detailed investigation. During the past few years, I have had made on fly shuttle looms very large numbers of worsted shawls, and have been able to sell them at a fair profit, notwithstanding the fact that the worsted was imported from the Continent. Quite recently, I have sent home for supplies of worsted from England, and I hope to be able to make a successful attack on this not inconsiderable business in shawls which hitherto has been done by Germany. It must, at the same time, be pointed out that the woollen mills in Bombay and the North of India have been turning out large quantities of such shawls, and I have no doubt that they are equally anxious to capture as much of the German business as they possibly can. The demand, however, for shawls is a steadily increasing one, and there seems to be ample room for a woollen mill, and possibly also of a weaving shed in the south of India.

From Germany, we get very little sugar, but the imports from Austria last year were valued at 138 lakhs of rupees. These, however, are insignificant compared with the imports from Java, which amounted to 10 crores and 19 lakhs of rupees last year, and are very much less than those from Mauritius, which amounted to 246 lakhs. The importance of the War in reference to sugar is due to the fact that it has practically thrown Germany, Austria, Russia and France out of the markets of the world, and large supplies which, in the ordinary course of things, would have come to India, will now be diverted to Europe. Evidence of this is to be found in the very considerable rise in the price of sugar which has already taken place, and here in Mysore the price of local jaggery has just about doubled. This is an opportunity which India is never likely to get again to place this big industry on a more favourable basis. The crop covers more than two million acres, and in a normal year, is worth possibly 25 crores of rupees; at present prices, it will probably fetch at least 40 crores, whilst the imports into the country amounted last year to nearly 15 crores. By far the greater part of the crop is dealt with in a most antiquated and wasteful manner, and for the last few years the Departments of Industries, both in Madras and Mysore, have been engaged in experimental work to improve matters. Our efforts have been extremely successful and where we have improved processes of making jaggery at work, the out-turn of jaggery has been increased by about 30 per cent. I know of no field at the present moment which offers greater inducement to the investment of capital, and to those who are interested in the details of this question, I would recommend the perusal of Bulletin No. 21, published by the Industries and Commerce Committee of the Mysore Economic Conference, entitled "An im-

proved method of manufacturing jaggery." The difficulties in the way of introducing this new process are very great, and long as the War may last, it will probably take a much longer time to overcome the prejudices, the inertia, and the ignorance of the ryots. To take advantage of this new method of manufacturing jaggery, it is either necessary that the sugar-cane growers within a certain area should combine together to purchase the plant, or that a capitalistic manufacturer should appear on the scene and set up the plant. There is not likely to be any undue haste in the acceptance of either solution of the problem.

Those who know most about the prospects of industrial development in India recognise that it can only proceed slowly; that the War has not eased the situation, but has made it more difficult; that confidence has not in any way increased, and that capital, always shy, is less likely than ever to flow freely into industrial ventures. Apart however from the difficulty of finding capital, there are no men in the country capable of effecting this industrial revolution. It is true that, during the last fifteen years, large numbers of young men have proceeded to Europe, America and Japan to acquire industrial knowledge and experience, but the vast majority have returned with a perfectly useless smattering, and wander about the country seeking victims whose capital is to be expended in demonstrating the futility of their foreign industrial training. In many places these men have started small factories, and have come hopelessly to grief. The investigations consequent upon the wholesale collapse of Swadeshi banking at the end of last year have revealed how the astute financiers deluded their victims by dangling before them the prospects of a flourishing indigenous industry conducted by returned technical students.

The industrial weakness of India has been in the past very detrimental to the manufacturing interests of Great Britain and has largely contributed to the progress of Germany and Austria. Whilst the United Kingdom has freely admitted all Indian products, except tea, without the imposition of any duties, our enemies, for the time being, have deliberately prevented the development of Indian industries by their refusal to accept anything but raw materials. Other protectionist countries have done the same but not to the same extent have they forced their manufactured goods into Indian markets and materially contributed to the destruction of the indigenous industries of the country. For a long time to come India is likely to be free from the hitherto ubiquitous German commercial traveller but if any benefit is to be derived from this removal of competition it is imperatively necessary that adequate measures should be taken to provide for the industrial training of the Young Men of India *in the country itself*.

The experience of the past fifteen years has shown how futile it is to send them to Europe or America to be trained. They are admitted freely into the technical schools and colleges but the workshops and factories are barred to them and private manufacturers are, not unnaturally, averse to giving possible rivals of the future the opportunities to become such rivals. We must therefore face the fact that some other method must be adopted and we have before us a brilliant example of what can be done, furnished by the late Mr. J. N. Tata of Bombay, whose foresight and genius has contributed so much to the material development of the resources of India. Unfortunately he did not live to see the realisation of his greatest projects but the work which he started has been vigerously prosecuted by his sons and this year will surely see the great iron works associated with his name beginning to yield a return on the capital invested in them and in a few months Bombay will be supplied with electric energy from the hydro-electric station which has been established in the Western Ghats. Equally in Mysore we have another shining example in the Sivasamudram hydro-electric station due to the late Sir Seshadri Aiyar which for the last ten years has yielded large profits to the Mysore Durbar and materially aided the exploitation of the mineral wealth of the State.

There are other men who have done similar work on a smaller scale but their number is not large and if the industrial progress of India is to be entirely the work of individual effort it is not likely to be more rapid in the future than it has been in the past.

After the war is over industrial competition is likely to be keener than ever and if India does not respond equally with the western world to the stimulus of the titanic struggle now being waged it must lose ground. There are many who would like to do something and a much smaller number who would probably succeed if only they could make a start. The position of India in the British Empire is one of the great problems of the future and it is necessary that the leaders of opinion should recognise that its status will largely depend upon its economic condition. Mere numbers count for little and progress is incompatible with poverty. Industrial education is

needed but it is the kind of education that can only be obtained in the workshop, the factory and the mill and where these are non-existent or their gates are barred it is obvious that steps must be taken to provide it.

Till quite recently the now dead doctrine of *laisez faire* prevailed and neither Natives States, Provincial Governments, nor the Government of India, and the Secretary of State, have recognised that it was necessary for them to do anything to foster industrial development in this country; and the efforts which have been made, chiefly in the South of India, have hitherto been looked upon with doubt and misgiving. In Madras, new industries have been successfully pioneered, radical changes in the methods of existing industries have been introduced with advantage, and mechanical power on a very large scale has replaced human and cattle labour. It is development along these lines that promises the most important results. The object of industrial development is to increase the wealth of the country; the increment to the wealth of the country can be measured by the dividend paid on the capital invested in the country. The experience of the last few years shows that, working along the lines marked out by the Departments of Industries in Madras and Mysore, the return on capital invested is much larger than that yielded in any other kind of industrial undertaking, and it seems obvious that, so long as this remains true, there should be no change in the direction of applying capital, but only such acceleration of the rate of application as the circumstances warrant.

The measures to facilitate the provision of capital for industrial purposes which have been recently sanctioned by the Government of Mysore represent the limit to which it is probably advisable that State assistance in this direction should be carried. A strong Bank run on lines analogous to those on which the Presidency Banks are worked has been established by local capitalists at the instance of Government who have promised it substantial assistance during the period of its infancy. For the acquisition of machinery, the use of which is likely to become more or less general throughout the country, a system of hire purchase has been devised, whereby the payments, commencing with an initial payment of one-fourth of the total amount, are spread over a period of three years. Finally, the Takkavi loan system has been developed and made available, so that almost any form of industrial enterprise may be assisted by loans at a moderate rate of interest secured on landed property. The administration of these new regulations is entrusted to the Department of Industries and Commerce, and as the principal work of the Department is to assist private enterprise, a sympathetic and at the same time a cautious administration is ensured. Attention is drawn to these regulations, because there is nothing like them in any other part of India, and although the experience of Mysore extends over but a limited period of time, it has been of such a successful character as to justify its being recommended to other parts of India.

The development of the Departments of Industries and extension of their sphere of operations is clearly indicated. The unreasonable apprehensions of the European mercantile community which were displayed so strongly at the Ootacamund Industrial Conference some years ago have to a large extent subsided but even if they should revive, were the State to take a more active part in the creation of new industries they ought to be disregarded. Larger views must prevail and higher forms of employment must be found for the increasing numbers in India who are seeking to utilise in some profitable way the education they have received at the cost of the State. We must teach the people how to work up the raw materials produced in the country for the local needs and since technical experience cannot be obtained abroad, technical experts should be imported from abroad and money found to enable them to start experimental industrial plants working on commercial lines. The operations need not as a rule be on a very large scale and it is practically certain that if the preliminaries are properly worked out there need be no failures. Each of these pioneer factories should be open to suitably qualified men from all parts of India and they should be put through such a course of instruction both in the factory and the office as will enable them to start similar factories wherever the local conditions are such that they are likely to be successful. It has already been shown that this can be done in the case of Alumunium, Chrome leather, hand loom weaving, the manufacture of jaggery and in the silk and wool industries. A vast and almost untouched field lies before us in the improvement of the food of the people and in the introduction of more efficient and less wasteful processes of manufacture.

India is only ripe for the development of industrial enterprise on a small scale, and in every part of the country experimental work connected with the improvement of indigenous industries is

urgently necessary. Where this has been carried out, and definite results have been obtained, the foundation for future work have been laid and now is the time to apply the results of the investigation to the practical work on as large a scale as is practicable; but where hitherto nothing has been done, it can hardly be hoped that any important developments can be effected during the immediate future.

Perhaps, the most valuable suggestion which I can make at the present time is that some attempt should be made to authoritatively determine what industrial progress has been made in the various parts of India. In every Province, a good deal of valuable work has been done which is scarcely known outside the Province, but which, if known, might prove of equal, and even greater value in other parts of India. It will no doubt be a difficult, and possibly a somewhat invidious, task to make this industrial survey, but it certainly ought to be done, and the results published as quickly as possible, so that advantage may be taken of the stimulating effect of the war to accelerate the, at present, very slow rate of progress.

THE WAR AND INDIAN TRADE

BY PROF. V. G. KALE, M.A.,

(FERGUSSON COLLEGE, POONA.)

INDIA'S contribution to the noble and manful fight that is being put up by the Allies against the twentieth-century barbarism of the German Huns, in men, money and moral support, has been acknowledged to be quite in keeping with the loyalty, imperial patriotism and the honourable traditions of this ancient land. Apart, therefore, from the sacrifices India will be called upon to make and will cheerfully make on behalf of the British Empire, this country, in common with other nations of the world, will have to face the inevitable consequences of the great struggle now going on in Europe. The stagnation of trade, the dislocation of industry and the disorganisation of credit, with high prices, unemployment and distress as their concomitants—these constitute the penalty civilization must pay to the barbarous militarism of Germany. In this crisis, every nation must strive to face the universal calamity in the best way open to it and to minimise the evil effects of the disastrous war when they cannot be escaped. How will Indian trade and industry be affected by the war and what effective measures may be taken to weather the storm, are questions which are agitating the minds of the Government and the public. It is futile and foolish to expect that everything should run on smoothly and that no inconvenience should be caused to the public in this time of crisis. We have to make up our minds on this point and be prepared, with confidence and hope, to make the needful sacrifices. Government may be depended upon to do everything that is practicable to ensure the even tenour of business and life in these times of financial stringency, industrial depression and trade stagnation. The financial estimates for the current year and possibly for the next, will be altogether upset and we have no doubt, Sir William Meyer will make the best of the situation. The Indian currency system and the gold exchange standard are passing through a tough ordeal, but Government have taken timely measures to maintain the foreign exchange. One cannot say how we shall stand at the end of the current financial year, and it is premature to forecast the position in which we shall then find ourselves.

With the enthusiastic co-operation of the public, the Government in Great Britain have been strenuously trying to ward off the evil effects of the war on the finances, currency, trade and industries of the country. So far as the two latter are concerned, similar measures must be adopted in India. Some of our larger industries, like those of cotton and jute, have already been adversely affected. The Bombay mill industry is in a parlous state and several mills have had to be closed. There was probably some over-trading in foreign piece goods and there are heavy stocks lying upon the hands of merchants. These were recently calculated at 150,000 packages in Bombay and their value was put down approximately

at six crores of rupees. To add to this, there are the stocks of country made cloths estimated at some three lakhs of bales and of yarns at one lakh bales. It is impossible that these large stocks should be worked off and the mills continued in working order at the same time. The public will, in these times of high prices and stagnant business, naturally be in a thrifty mood and the market for cotton goods will be extremely limited. The capital needed to run the mills will be wanting, and even if it were available, it would be madness to work the mills when there is no market for their output. The exports to the eastern markets have been stopped for lack of shipping and when they are opened there will not be much eagerness to purchase on the part of our customers. The last year was far from prosperous to the mill industry in Bombay, the depression being more the result of a glut in the piece goods market than of the loss of credit and monetary difficulties. Thus we read in the *Trade Review* for the year 1913-14 :—" For the town and island of Bombay the profits for the year 1913 came to Rs. 182 lakhs, including Rs. 29 lakhs for the agents' commission. The wages amounted to Rs. 247 lakhs against Rs. 268 lakhs in 1912. The profits of the weaving mills, excluding commission, came to 21 per cent ; out of which 10 per cent. was paid in dividends as against 28 and 11½ per cent. respectively earned in 1912 ; while the spinning mills earned about 11 per cent. on capital, out of which 6 per cent. was paid in dividends last year, as compared with 22 and 5½ per cent. respectively in the previous year." The present depression thus comes on the top of an unfavourable year and the prospect is anything but cheerful. As regards our export trade in cotton yarn and cloth, we have not been making any progress during the past few years, as will be seen from the following figures :

Exports of cotton manufactures.

	Yarn.		Woven Goods.	
1909-10	9,71,00,000	Rs.	2,21,00,000	Rs.
1910-11	8,62,00,000	"	2,39,00,000	"
1911-12	7,59,00,000	"	2,19,00,000	"
1912-13	9,92,00,000	"	2,28,00,000	"
1913-14	9,83,00,000	"	2,29,00,000	"

With the jute industry in Bengal, matters were quite different, the last year being very prosperous for it. India has almost a monopoly in the production of jute-fibre which is in constant demand in Europe and elsewhere. During the last ten years the value of raw jute exported to foreign countries has nearly doubled, having advanced from 17 crores of rupees in 1905-06 to more than 30¾ crores in 1913-14. The export trade in jute manufactures has similarly expanded in a remarkable manner and increased from 16 crores in 1911-12 to 28 crores of rupees last year. But the war has darkened the outlook for this industry too. Apart from the shrinkage of the market, the lack of the means of transportation must hamper the course of the export trade and thus involve an amount of loss. What an important place jute occupies in the industrial economy of this country may be seen from the fact that in 1913-14, jute manufactures represented nearly 52 per cent. of the total value of exports of Indian manufactures and nearly 12 per cent. of the total exports of Indian merchandise as compared with raw jute, the export of which was nearly 13 per cent. of the total. It is notorious that the bulk of the Indian export trade consists of food grains and raw materials which are in great demand in all the manufacturing countries of the world. While the share of the United Kingdom in our imports in 1913-14 was 64·1 per cent., it took, in the same year, only 23·7 per cent. of our exports. Nearly 25 per cent. of our export trade is with countries now engaged in the war on the European continent, Germany taking 10·3 per cent., France 7·1 per cent., Belgium 4·9 per cent., and Austria-Hungary 3·9 per cent. This trade is, of course, doomed this year as also a part of the trade with other countries. India's export trade in oil seeds is a pretty large one, and was valued at more than 25 crores of rupees last year. Last year, the United Kingdom and France took nearly 32 and 29 per cent., respectively of the total, with Belgium closely following. The war cannot but adversely affect this trade and cultivators have been warned not to raise oil seeds this year as there will be no demand for them, and grow food grains in their stead. It is difficult to say how far this warning has reached the ignorant class of cultivators and whether they will be in a position to profit by it. The war is, in this way, telling upon almost every branch of our export trade and involving in loss large classes of people, merchants, middlemen, agents and particularly the poor cultivators.

The situation of the trade in raw cotton is perhaps the most anxious. Our exports of this staple have been steadily expanding till they attained the record amount last year *viz.*, 29,75,000 bales valued at more than 41 crores of rupees. The area under cotton rose from 22,028,000 acres

in 1912-13 to 24,595,000 acres in 1913-14, while the estimated out-turn rose from 4,610,000 bales to 5,201,000 bales. Cotton has latterly become one of the most important of our commercial crops and the cultivation has been steadily expanding. The value of the whole annual crop may be ordinarily put down safely at 70 crores of rupees. Even if Japan, our largest buyer, purchases from us this year anything upon the last year's scale (1,348,000 bales in 1913-14), our other usual customers, Germany, Belgium, Austria-Hungary and France, who among them take as much as Japan alone, cannot absorb even a fraction of the normal total. Half of the out-turn of cotton is exported and more than one-third is consumed by the indigenous mills. Both these outlets are now practically stopped and this stagnation will spell ruin to all those interested in the cotton trade. The United States of America, the largest cotton-producing country in the world—is confronted with an equally serious problem. The exports of American cotton to Great Britain are stopped owing to the stoppage of mills in Lancashire and there is a slump in the trade. This means that price of cotton will go down, as it has gone down already, and there will be no demand for the staple even at cheap prices. Now the cotton crop is a very valuable economic asset in the United States and systematic and strenuous attempts are being made there to tide over the present crisis. In view of the present depressed trade conditions and the uncertainty about the duration of the war, the area of cotton cultivation will be curtailed in the ensuing season in America and Egypt. The measures that are contemplated in the former country to relieve the situation, will "consist in greatly increasing the storage facilities for cotton, which facilities under present conditions are limited to only about one quarter of the crop, and secondly in making it possible for banks to loan more liberally on cotton than they would feel warranted in doing without some special Government assistance." Sir Charles Macara has adumbrated a similar scheme in England for storing up cotton with state help, thus carrying over the stocks to next season and preventing an abnormal condition in the market.

Cotton-dealers in India have been urging upon the attention of Government the immediate need of taking similar measures of relief in this country. If the cultivator is forced to sell his cotton at the ruinous prices that will now rule in the market, he will suffer heavily. It is therefore suggested that Government should accept custody of cotton and issue warrants against it. We are told that it would be "an easy matter for warrant holders to obtain loans and advances on such convenient and undoubted securities and an additional advantage would be that the lenders themselves could raise money on them if they so desired." The scheme appears so nice on paper but one does not know how far it is practicable. Then again, the question has been raised, if this relief is to be granted to dealers in cotton, why should not the same consideration be shown to people who are interested in other crops? The latter stand in the same predicament as cotton dealers and deserve the same sympathy and assistance. The solution of the problem will not be found easy by Government who will have impartially to give relief wherever it is required. The problem of unemployment is being systematically faced in Great Britain where the distress caused by the war will be immense. Work is found for those who are thrown out of employment and relief is given in other ways. The Government is acting throughout in co-operation with the labour organisations, the local bodies and the public. In India we have no labour organisations and workmen are said to be returning from industrial centres to their native places. It is not easy therefore to estimate the effects of trade stagnation upon labour. District officers will do well to make local inquiries and ascertain the condition of skilled and unskilled workmen in the various industries and with the co-operation of the public organize measures of relief if and where it is needed. One effect of the war has been the rise of the price level in the case of articles which are usually imported from abroad, but this is likely to be counter-balanced by a fall in the prices of commodities which are locally produced and the foreign market for which has been closed or curtailed. This cheapness will not be an unmixed blessing in as much as while it will benefit the consumers, the producers who represent a very large portion of the population, are bound to suffer from a substantial shrinkage in their small profits. This gloomy prospect is relieved by one cheerful feature and it is this. The monsoon season has been very favourable throughout the country and the crops have been and are expected to be abundant. Fortunately, therefore, we are free in this time of crisis, from one potent factor of anxiety viz., drought or famine which seldom fails to make its appearance in one part or another of this big agricultural land. It is something to feel thankful for that nature is fighting on our side.

So far we have dealt with only one aspect of the problem and considered how our trade and industries will be affected by the war. The country is overtaken with the adverse effects of a calamitous war and the Government and people have to devise the best measures of defence. But war is not only a game of defence; we must also take the offensive and carry the martial operations into the very heart of the enemy's dominions. In fighting the ever-recurring famines in this country, the Government takes measures to relieve distress when and where it occurs. It at the same time carries out certain works which are calculated to prevent the occurrence of famines, at any rate to render their attack comparatively mild. When the war broke out, it thus occurred to many people in England, that advantage might be taken of the enemy's situation to carry on an industrial campaign against Germany and Austria-Hungary and to capture their growing trade with the Empire and neutral countries. By strenuous effort Germany has made very rapid strides in the development of her industries and trade during the last few years and has come to take a larger share in the commerce of the world. It may be impossible to oust Germany from certain lines of trade owing to a kind of monopoly she has established in them; but there are several others where by a determined effort Great Britain might establish herself as a successful rival. The dependence of the Empire on Germany for the supply of certain commodities was to be shaken off and a stimulus was to be imparted to the industries of Great Britain and the Colonies. Owing to the war the trade and manufactures of Germany and Austria-Hungary were stopped, while, thanks to Britain's naval supremacy, those of the Empire were safe. If under the circumstances, England could capture a portion of the enemy's trade, it would not only provide work to her people for the time being, it would also promote the industrial prosperity of Britain while dealing a blow to the industries of Germany. As soon as the idea was started, it was enthusiastically taken up by the people and the Government, the latter collecting and publishing all the information that was necessary for carrying on the industrial campaign. Exhibitions were held and samples of articles to be produced shown to people who were interested in their manufacture. How far this patriotic movement will succeed and what permanent gain will have been made by the time peace is restored, it is difficult to say. But there it is and something is bound to come out of it.

This movement touched a sympathetic chord in the Indian heart and recalled the dying echoes of *Swadeshi*, the failure of which is universally deplored in this country. Everybody thought that the psychological moment had arrived when Government and people might co-operate to inaugurate an industrial revival in India. If the movement could be started in England, it could be launched, it was felt, under more favourable conditions in this country. Our export trade is very large and three-fourths of it is with countries other than the United Kingdom. Apart from the possibility of advantageously diverting a part of this trade—mainly that with the enemy nations—to England and the Colonies, there was the prospect of our being able to manufacture locally a considerable portion of the raw materials which are annually exported to foreign countries. India imports numerous articles of every day use from Germany and other countries such as paper and cutlery, glass-ware and matches, sugar and leather goods, umbrellas and soaps, candles and cigarettes and a host of others. Could we only manufacture these articles in our own country, what a large addition should we make to the income of our people and how should we promote their prosperity! The idea is an old one—the dream of our sleeping and waking hours,—only there is a fresh opportunity afforded now to translate the fancy into a fact. The Governments of the various Provinces were fired with zeal and ordered inquiries to be made as to the extent to which advantage might be taken of the present situation to improve the industrial prospects of the country. We are afraid, so far as the economic condition of the country and its industrial possibilities are concerned, fresh inquiries are not likely to reveal much that was not discovered and suggest new lines of development. Without deprecating the industrial investigations that are now in progress in the country, we may be allowed to say that not only have industrial surveys been already made in several Provinces, but the points of strength and weakness in our position have been definitely marked. Not only that; industrial experiments have been made by people and many of them have failed. The causes of the failures are also not unknown. If, under the circumstances, fresh inquiries are to be made, they must be made with a definite object in view. For instance, take the match factories, several of which were started by private enterprise and have not succeeded. Make an inquiry into the causes of the failure of the

enterprises and let Government come forward to assist in remedying the defects from which they have suffered. Let the State make up its mind to help private enterprise to the necessary extent; let it initiate industrial schemes so that they might be taken up by the public. Inquiries started with some such definite idea and fructifying in some tangible results will be more welcome. Mere collection of facts and figures will indeed have its own use; but of that we have had much. What is required is practical action and one or two industries successfully launched will go further to stimulate general industrial development than a mass of statistics carefully collated and tabulated for the information of the public.

When speaking of an industrial revival in this country we must not lose sight of the enormous difference between the economic conditions that obtain here and in England. When they talk in Great Britain of capturing the enemy's trade, the people are conscious that they possess the means of doing so. They have the necessary capital, the enterprise, the skill and the experience which are needed, and what is demanded is only the expansion of these into new channels. But in India most of these essentials are sadly lacking, and we have to begin almost at the beginning. Exhibitions of the articles to be turned out may suffice in England to give rise to new industries. In India a great deal more than this is wanted. So many failures of Swadeshi ventures have damped the ardour of the people and they have no guarantee that any fresh experiments will succeed better. The State in India is wedded to the principle of free trade and is precluded from giving active assistance to indigenous industries. Is this not a time when Government in India might be allowed to turn over a new leaf in its economic policy and do for India what several foreign states have done for their people? The very idea of capturing the enemy's trade, to a certain extent, compromises the principle of free trade according to which freedom of trade and of individual and international competition must be left to determine what industrial activities will be pursued by the different countries of the world. At any rate, in India, the principle must indisputably be modified in action if this country is to make any industrial progress in the face of foreign competition. While England may be able, in spite of the worship she does to the fetish of free trade, to capture some of the lines of the enemy's industrial and commercial activity, India, as past experience amply shows, will be able to do nothing in the way of industrial development unless the Government take the initiative and train the people to achieve success. There are indeed difficulties in the way, but they must be overcome if the present opportunity is not to be lost. For example, there is the sugar industry in the development of which private capitalists have made more or less fruitless essays. The stoppage of the supplies from the European continent will divert Java sugar to England and other countries in the west and will raise the price of the article —the price is already high—in the Indian market. Cannot something be done to rehabilitate the indigenous sugar industry? Even the *Statist* feels that this ought to be done and asks "Or if private capitalists will not do the work, is it beyond the capacity, of the British Government in India to build up once more a great sugar industry in that country?......Are Englishmen so inferior to Frenchmen and Germans that they cannot revive the sugar industry in India at a time when the vast German and Austrian supply is suddenly cut off?" It is well known that our sugar imports have been going up by leaps and bounds and were last year valued at more than 14 crores of rupees. The attention of Government has certainly been drawn to the question of developing the sugar industry in India and various measures are being taken in that direction. And it is to be seen if the pace will be accelerated under the peculiar conditions created by the war, and whether the line of action being pursued will undergo any change.

We must again guard ourselves against raising false hopes about the results of the 'capture-the-enemy's-trade' movement. At one time the *Swadeshi* movement was equally promising and our enthusiasm over it knew no bounds. But some of the essential factors which bring about industrial development were lacking and the movement did not prove the success it promised to be. Unless, therefore, care is taken to frame the scheme of our industrial revival in accordance with sound principles and to carry it out along well-thought-out lines, we shall be inviting another big failure. The lesson which the experience of the past has to teach has, however, been taken by the country and the recent banking catastrophe is too fresh in the minds of the people to require a fresh warning. In one sense, this is really very unfortunate. Capital, which is proverbially scarce and shy in this country, will be absolutely unobtainable exactly when it would be required to finance any new industrial venture which people of enterprise may be induced to start at this moment. There is another consideration which must also be emphasised in this connection. Owing to

a cessation of foreign competition resulting from the disturbance of the war, certain lines of trade and industry may appear to be open and may perhaps be temporarily occupied by Indian enterprise. The war must, however, come to an end sooner or later and the competition will be renewed. The period of the war cannot be enough to enable us to place the new ventures on a satisfactory footing and the indigenous industries will once more have to run the gauntlet of the foreign competitors. The protection provided by patriotic sentiment goes some way in assisting the growth of indigenous industries but that is not enough. That protection has to be backed up by the systematic policy of the State designed to promote the industries of the nation. Such a definite policy we ask Government to formulate at this moment. Let officials and non-officials meet together in each district and discuss the industrial possibilities of the locality. Let experts be consulted and definite proposals be made to be taken in hand under the auspices of Government. These are the practical lines on which we have to proceed and even if nothing more than a beginning is made in this direction we shall have accomplished much.

This is a matter which is probably engaging the attention of the Government at the present moment, though it is difficult to say what practical results their enquiries and deliberations will produce. In the meantime, the Department of Statistics has published a Memorandum and Statistical Tables relating to the Trade of India with Germany and Austria-Hungary for the information of the public. The publication gives a clear idea of the nature and extent of India's trade with the enemy nations and of the openings there are for Great Britain, the Colonies and India for the expansion of their trade with one another. Of course it is not possible for the latter to capture and permanently occupy lines of business which are a kind of monopoly with Germany and Austria-Hungary. But there are certain lines which may be attacked and retained. At any rate, the statistics exhibited are very suggestive and to a discerning eye and resourceful brain, open promising prospects. It is needless to name here the many articles in the supply of which the enemy nations enjoy a large share. What we want to point out is that this is not a question of only temporarily taking advantage of the war in which Germany and Austria-Hungary are involved. It is the larger question of initiating a regular movement in favour of the industrial development of India. Temporary measures and palliatives will not, therefore, serve the purpose: a new and definite policy is required. In this connection the remarks made by Mr. Findlay Shirras in his "Review of the Trade of India for 1913-14," with regard to our trade with Germany, are very instructive. He says:—"The value of Indian trade with Germany has increased, costly British goods being largely displaced in India by German cheap manufactures. German manufacturers have secured special advantages by the application of technical skill, chemical science or a combination of both, in the supply of certain goods, such as musical instruments and mineral dyes from coal tar. The development of German shipping has also encouraged direct imports from, as well as export of cotton, hides, jute, oilseeds, and rice for manufactures to Germany. Cotton manufactures, dyes, copper, iron and steel, machinery and woollens bulk in the import trade." The present is an opportune moment for initiating a new policy such as we have suggested above for the economic advancement of India. The British press, reflecting British public opinion, has been ringing with expressions of appreciation for the spontaneous co-operation which India has given to Britain as a matter of plain duty at the present juncture. The whole British nation is in a kindlier and a more sympathetic mood. Might not the opportunity be availed of by Government for the purpose of ushering in a new era of industrial activity and economic prosperity? No boon will be better appreciated by or will prove more beneficial to the people of India.

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SOME FORCES AND FACTORS IN WAR

BY

DR. FITZGERALD LEE, M.A., F.R.G.S.

[Author of "*The Campaign in Bohemia,* 1866;" "*The Egyptian Campaign of 1882;*" "*Russo-Turkish War, 1877-78;*" "*Eylau and Friedland, 1807;*" "*Handbook on Strategy*"; and "*Military Geography*".]

I.

IN connection with war in general there is a certain saying which many of us have heard, and some have believed: "Providence is always on the side of the big battalions." But the facts deeply engraved on the iron pages of History prove this saying to be utterly false and hollow.

The history of the conquest of this great Indian Empire in which we live proves the falseness of the saying. To take a few examples: at the battle of Plassey, 3,000 British and Indian troops conquered an army of 80,000; at Assaye, 5,000 put 50,000 to flight; at Meanee, 4,000 exterminated 30,000; and in the ever memorable year of the Mutiny, 40,000 good and true men of the British Army held the field against, and finally subdued, a well-trained, brave and disciplined force of 200,000. These hard facts, which nobody will attempt to deny, are sufficient in themselves to prove that victory and success do not invariably lie on the side of the big battalions. In the present war the odds against the British have been, according to the best authorities, sometimes four, five and six, to one; yet the British soldier has more than held his own against such odds.

The histories of other armies besides our own, notably those of the French Army, under the great Napoleon in his best days, furnish proofs that the "big battalions" are not necessarily the successful ones. In 1796, Napoleon's army of 36,000 French conquered 80,000 Austrians and Sardinians; with 60,000 men he beat 100,000 at Austerlitz; with 70,000 he beat 100,000 at Friedland; and it was when he had his biggest battalions that he experienced his most crushing defeat; namely, in the Moscow campaign, when he was at the head of half-a-million men.

In the history of the American Civil War, so eloquently told by Henderson (*Science of War and Stonewall Jackson*) we find many cases in which large forces were beaten by smaller ones; notably the *Wilderness* and *Cold Harbour* campaign, in which General Lee, with 70,000 men, caused a loss of 80,000 to Grant's force of 160,000, in the one month of May, 1864.

Historical examples such as these, as well as many others which we could quote, lead us to the conclusion that there must be some other factor in war which makes for success, besides mere numerical superiority.

That factor is the "Moral Force" or the "Moral Element" in war; and its existence, though at times ignored, has never yet been denied by any really great leader of men, nor by any great writer of Military History from Julius Cæsar down to Napier. And as it may exist in an individual man, as something altogether apart from his physical or muscular strength, so it may and does exist in a body of men apart from their numerical strength. And as an electrical power-centre distributes its force to distances all around, so does the man endowed with a larger measure of moral force impart it to those about him. Hence we have in history great and successful commanders who were in no way remarkable for physical strength, but who were endowed beyond other men with the divine fire of moral force. The hunch-back Luxemburg, the puny and sickly Eugene, and the great conqueror Timour who was lame in a leg and blind of an eye—such men would never have risen to prominence in the earlier stages of the world's history when brute strength alone prevailed.

As nations progress in civilisation, as weapons of war become more scientific, so does the moral

element become of increasing importance in the art of war. If we cast our glance back over recent Military History, we shall find that this moral element did not play such an important part one hundred years ago as it did fifty years ago; and fifty years ago it was not such a decisive factor of success in war as it is in the present day.

During the Napoleonic Wars at the beginning of the last century, very few of the great leaders of men of that time took this factor into consideration. And those two great leaders, Wellington and Napoleon, who not only recognised its existence but employed it with the best effect, were those who gained the most brilliant successes of their age. Students of Military History will remember how severely Wellington was taken to task by some of his contemporaries for what they considered the unnecessary and costly assault on San Sebastian. But Wellington replied to them: "I saw it was necessary to take San Sebastian for the *moral effect* such action was bound to produce, not only on the enemy, but on my Allies."

As long as the great Emperor Napoleon put moral force in the first place in his campaigns, so long was he successful. And he continued successful until he allowed himself to be carried away by the intoxication of his success to kick from under him the ladder by which he had climbed, to throw the moral element overboard, and to replace it by the element of brute force and "big battalions." There are some military writers who put forward all sorts of reasons for the decline and fall of the Great Emperor: historians—notably Thiers and Alison—who try to explain away the disasters of Moscow, Leipzig and Waterloo, by far-fetched and fanciful causes—every cause but the right one: the substitution of mere brute force for moral strength. And yet it was Napoleon himself who, in his earlier and better days, laid it down that "in war, the moral is to the physical as three to one." Anyone who reads with due attention the Napoleonic campaigns from 1796 to 1815; who notes and compares the changes in the method of operations during this period; who is not slavishly tied down by pre-conceived opinions borrowed from prejudiced and narrow-minded writers; such a student of Military History must inevitably come to the conclusion that directly the *Moral Element* began to diminish in the Emperor's armies and leadership, the fall of the Emperor and his Empire became merely a matter of time.

When we turn to study the campaigns which were carried out by Napoleon's Marshals—magnificent fighting-men as some of them were—we come to a most extraordinary series of disasters. And when we try to fathom the reasons for this, with "the cold light of History" for our guide, we find the solution in the fact that not one of these great soldiers and commanders (with perhaps the exception of Marshal Davout) ever took the *Moral Element* into account in his military operations. Pass them along in review: that blustering Gascon, Soult, gnashing his teeth at the British, because "they were beaten but did not know it" at Albuerha; the courteous and kind-hearted soldier and gentleman, Victor, at Barossa and Talavera; the surly Massena, the "spoiled child of victory," at Busaco and Fuentes d'Onor; the vile, scheming traitor, Marmont, at Salamanca; the dull, good-natured, but flabby Joseph, still calm ever under the seathing sarcasms of Jourdain, at Vittoria; the dilettante, Oudinot, "who played the violin divinely" and played the fool at Gross-Beeren; Ney, "the bravest of the brave," losing his head and his chance at Dennewitz; the clever Macdonald, hoping in vain to catch Blucher napping by the Katzbach stream; the brave, but unfortunate Vandamme, at Kulm; not forgetting the last and worst case of all—Grouchy, Marshal of France, with 35,000 hard-bitten old veterans, 100 guns, and the finest light cavalry in the world, failing at the supreme moment, and turning his back on the thunder of the guns at Waterloo; each of these great commanders, the choice and master-spirits of their age, suffered the same fate in war.

Such a series of defeats is to be found in no period of Military History. How can we explain this? Well, of course, there were more reasons than one, according to the different circumstances under which they fought and lost; but one reason is equally applicable to every case: the trail of the serpent is over them all: none of these commanders had any idea of the existence of such a thing as *Moral Force* no more than a man born blind has any idea of colour. They all relied on *Brute Force*, pure and simple, supplemented by a certain amount of mechanical drill and discipline, with the consciousness of previous great victories, gained by the master of them all, who employed the weapon of whose existence they were unaware.

And we see history repeating itself before our eyes to-day, in the apotheosis of brute force, based on the reminiscences of Sadowa and Sedan. In the compaign of 1866, there were none of the infamous brutalities which disgrace the German armies of 1914. Spea'ng of this campaign, an English military histori says :—

The Prussian Army might justly be considered the most intelligent in Europe, as it certainly was the most respectable in its bearing in the field. Murder and plunder rarely accompanied its march; a general was seldom called upon to add vigour to the soldier's action by the promise of loot." (Adams, *Great Campaigns*: p. 371)

It is to be regretted that the military historian of the future will not be in a position to pay similar compliments to the Prussian Army of 1914.

At the battle of Koniggratz, in the 1866 campaign, the Prussians were not very much superior to the Austrians in number; and this superiority was more than neutralised by the very strong position which the Austrians occupied, and by the superiority of the Austrian artillery. But the moral force was on the side of the Prussians, so they gained the day. Again, in 1870, the German armies did not lay themselves out wilfully to disgust and horrify mankind. One of the most striking acts of vandalism in that campaign was the destruction of Strasburg Cathedral; but then, Von Werder, who caused it, found it necessary to excuse himself by explaining that he mistook the verb *einschiessen* (to bombard) for *einschliessen* (to invest). In 1914 we find no attempts made on the part of German commanders to excuse or palliate the destruction of Louvain and Rheims. Brute force never troubles to apologise or to find excuses. And as sure as brute force has always in the past suffered defeat and disgrace, so surely will the compaign begun in 1914 be also another proof of the futility of brute force and of the triumph of moral force in the long run.

Let us now investigate more closely this very important factor of Moral Force, since all those who are interested in war should understand it, and since every commander of men should know something about it, if he wishes to be successful in war.

The moral forces are numerous. But though they vary in different peoples, races and countries, yet they may be generally divided into two distinct classes: *Natural Forces* and *Acquired Forces.* The former are those which belong to a particular race, which are the peculiar heritage of that race alone, handed down to them from father to son, in their very thews, blood and marrow. For instance, here in India, the Natural Force of the Pathan is quite different from that in the Gurkha. The Natural Force in the Perthshire Highlander is different from that in the Devonshire man. But a certain Natural Force is there, in all cases; and the best Pathan, Gurkha, or Highland officer is he who early recognises this force and makes it his very special study. Without this study the officer is bound to prove a failure.

The *Acquired Forces*, on the other hand, are the result of education and training during the period of man's growth, and during his military service if he happens to be a soldier. These forces may be implanted in the normal man, and developed by the man himself or by those who are responsible for his training. Some men are more receptive than others with regard to these *Acquired Forces*; and it often happens that the man in whom the *Natural Forces* are strongest is he who has most difficulty in assimilating the *Acquired Forces.* The most perfect soldier in modern war is he in whom the *Acquired Forces* are grafted on to the *Natural Forces* without weakening or diminishing the latter to any degree. But where the *Natural Forces* are suppressed (for they cannot be destroyed) to make room for the *Acquired Forces,* then we get the soldier who is reduced to the level of a mere machine. In the British Army we have examples of the former; in the German and Austrian Armies, of the latter. In the British Army, no matter how many years' service he has had, no matter how much drill and discipline he has gone through, the Gurkha is still a Gurkha, the Pathan is still a Pathan, the Irishman still an Irishman. But in the German Army, the Pomeranian and the Pole, the Bavarian and the Saxon, are all reduced to the dead and drab level of Prussian machinery. And it is exactly the same in the Austrian Army. In civil life you will never have the slightest difficulty in distinguishing from one another the Czech, the Croat, the Pole and the Magyar, though they may be all dressed alike. But when they are in uniform it is impossible to tell which is which.

Still it must be acknowledged that the German Army has one great advantage over all the other European armies. It is this: *Germany believes in war.* While the statesman and soldiers and writers of other countries have been consoling themselves with the idea that the progress of civilisation has made war impossible, Germany has never for a moment, during the last forty years, relaxed her efforts in her preparations for that war in which she fully believed, and which has now come. She certainly talked about Peace and about Hague Conventions, but always with her tongue in her cheek. It pleased the others, and it did her far more good than harm. If the fools wished to lull themselves to sleep, well, all the better for her,

And when, making a speech in the Reichstag, the German War Minister once let the cat out of the bag by saying, *Alles was wir thun muss einen Kriegszweck haben*, (everything we do must have a military object in view) he got severely rapped over the knuckles next day, by the *Tageblatt* and the *Kolnische Zeitung*, for his lack of discretion. And it served him right: he should not "have given the show away," like that. The creed of the German is war; and he believes in it far more truly and heartily than other Christians believe in their most solemn religious creeds.

Now it must be always borne in mind that no *Moral Forces* in war can ever be successfully instilled into a man unless he has one certain conviction and one fixed belief, to start with; and that is, the belief in war. In saying this I do not wish to be misunderstood. I do not go so far as to say, with the German writer, that "War is a biological necessity"; far from it. I do not believe that war is a "necessity" at all; biological or otherwise. It has sometimes proved to be a very expensive "luxury" to kings and rulers. But as long as human nature remains what it is, war will be a possibility, and even will be sometimes expedient. And when we get down to the bedrock of all things in this human world, war included, we must take human nature into account. And all speculations on mundane matters which leave out the human nature factor resemble the playing of the tragedy of *Hamlet* and leaving out the Prince of Denmark.

And this is why reasonable thinking men differ from those well-meaning, but short-sighted persons, who weary us with their empty prattle about universal peace, about settling international disputes by arbitration, about the miraculous virtue inherent in a Conference, or the long, calm rest of a Millenium. All these ideas are not only childish dreams, but very pernicious dreams, begotten in the brains of those who either have their own interests to serve by the promulgation of such ideas, or who have never sufficiently studied human nature. Universal peace, indeed! A Millenium of rest? There is no universal peace but in the grave: there is no Millenium but in the silent Majesty of Death.

Yet the times we live in teach us that nations and peoples, great and small, do not show the least desire to seek their Millenium of Peace in national Death. They fight against it with all their might, as Belgium and Servia are doing. The fact is that people and nations not only wish to live, but they are ready to die, and to make others die, in order that their own nation may live. And this is what war means. Life, especially national life, always implies a struggle for existence. For various reasons this struggle is far more severe now than ever it was before; and this also means war.

From the earliest ages of the world there have been wars, and the present war will not be the last one. There have been righteous and unrighteous wars, for self-protection, from necessity, ambition, pride, selfishness, revenge, hatred, or earth-hunger. For years an *economic war has been going on* between Austria and Servia; another between England and Germany. We can easily give these wars, all of them, *a name* to describe them. But when we come to investigate their *causes*, then we are face to-face with a very difficult problem. Some writers as well as readers of history state, and seem to believe, that such wars as I have mentioned are caused by the ambition, greed, selfishness, or vanity of some powerful man, faction, creed or family. But in this I venture to think they are altogether wrong.

As the result of many years' conscientious study of the histories of nations and wars I have come to the conclusion:—

These great wars are nothing more nor less than simple natural phenomena, like the thunderstorm, the earthquake, the volcano or the tidal wave.

So when Mark Twain said that the French Revolution was caused because Adam and Eve begot children, he was nearer the truth than perhaps he suspected. It was certainly a better, because a truer, reason than the clumsy one put forward by M. Thiers for the conflict between France and Germany in 1870. He compares the two nations to two locomotives started from opposite ends of a single pair of rails.

Any student of history who goes below the surface will experience great difficulty in satisfying himself as to the *real* cause or causes of some particular war. No matter how carefully he follows up each trace, he will find the task like trying to discover the sources of some great river whose head streams are hidden in the everlasting snows. Take, for instance, the great Civil War which raged in North America for four long years, from 1861 to 1865. There are books enough written on that war to pave all the streets in New York. Yet, no matter what they all tell us about it, it is impossible to believe that it was caused by the bombardment of Fort Sumter. Some say that it was caused by the

idea of setting free the slaves on the Southern plantations. But this is not a *cause*; it is only an *object*; and the two ideas must not be mixed up. In any case, the slavery question, as a cause, falls to the ground, when we remember that Mr. Lincoln, in his inaugural message to Congress, distinctly stated that his Government had no right to interfere with the domestic institutions (*i. e.* slavery) of any State in the Union. In the same way, nobody believes that the war of 1870-71 was *caused* by Bismarck's "doctoring" of the Ems telegram; or that the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78 was *caused* by the murder of the two consuls at Saloniki, or that the present great war was CAUSED by the murder of the Archduke Ferdinand.

The fact is that the real causes of these wars are often very difficult even to guess at, much more to determine with anything like accuracy. They depend on unknown quantities. But, most frequently, their true causes are to be found in the nature and circumstances of those very people who take part in them. Therefore, by carefully studying the nature of particular peoples, their circumstances and conditions of life, it ought to be possible to foretell, with a certain amount of accuracy, that war will break out between them at a certain time. Nobody who has carefully followed the course of the present war, up to now, can doubt that Turkey is bound to come into it, sooner or later; and that nothing can keep her out of it.* And, as I stated, in print, more than a month ago (*Tribune*, 11-9-'14) Turkey will be simply putting a rope round her own neck by going against the best and truest friend she ever had—England.

All nations have the instinct of preservation and self defence; some nations have acquired a truculent and aggressive instinct, from various causes. Two such nations live side by side: defender and aggressor: causes of friction arise. The clouds begin to look black, and fear comes into the hearts of men. Fear turns to despair and rage: and the floods break loose.

Cry havoc and let slip the dogs of war!

The great wars of the last century, as well as the present great war, are acts—unconsciously, to a certain extent—undertaken by men who feel themselves forcibly impelled to do certain acts, without exactly knowing what power it is that keeps driving them on. And this driving power, this unknown quantity, is [illegible]gether independent of, and outside of, Cabinets or Councils, Governors or Rulers, Kings or Emperors. But *Governments and Rulers seem to lead and direct this impulse, while, as a matter of fact, they are only following it all the time.* And herein is war in its nature democratic; as democratic as death itself, since all men are equal under the ground. The *people* it is who make the war. If the people do not want war, the Ruler cannot make it. If the people want war, the Ruler cannot stop them from making it. I remember, many years ago, reading a certain sentence in a Moscow newspaper, the *Golos*: I have never forgotten it. I was struck with astonishment to read such words in a Russian newspaper. It was: "The Russian people wish to fight for the freedom of their brethren in the Turkish Empire. If the Tsar do not lead his people to fight for their brethren, then the people will fight without the Tsar." Could words be plainer? "If you do not wish to declare war against Turkey, well—stand clear!" War was declared within one week after the date of the article in the *Golos*.

Therefore I take this opportunity of protesting—though I may be only a voice crying in the wilderness—against those writers and speakers and artists who abuse the German Emperor and hold him up to ridicule. If we cannot beat Germany without the assistance of Billingsgate, well, we are in a poor way.

The German Emperor has *not* caused this war. He could not have been the cause of it, even if he tried. It was the German *people* who caused this war. Let there be no mistake about this. They are a well educated people, the Germans. They began to look round the world. Their hats got too small for their heads. They said: "We have increased by twenty millions in forty years; we must have room. We can't live like maggots in a cheese, because very soon the cheese would be all maggots. We must have a place in the sun." Why not? We, Britishers, would have said the same thing. But we would not have carried out our ideas in exactly the same way as the Germans have done.

The expansion of the British and Russian Empires, the formation of the Kingdom of Italy and of the German Empire, within the past sixty years, are striking proofs of the theory I have ventured to put forward with reference to wars as natural phenomena. The desire for expansion is not common to all nations. It is particularly felt by young nations full of life, such as Germany, America and Bulgaria. But it is no less

* This was written on t[illegible]th of October, and shown to others, who read it on [illegible]ate.

felt by old nations when they become rejuvenated, like Japan. When old Faust becomes young again his first desire is for a Marguerite. The war in Manchuria, 1904-05, and the Balkan war of 1912, were wars of expansion. And one of the main objects of the present war is admitted to be the expansion of the German Empire—"a place in the sun."

II.

One of the most striking lessons which can be learnt from a study of the events which led up to the present war is the utter emptiness and futility of that blessed word: *Arbitration*. If there be still left any man who pretends that he believes in the efficacy of arbitration in settling international disputes, all we can say of him is, in the words of Hamlet: "Let the doors be shut upon him, that he may play the fool nowhere but in his own house." I have often wondered whether a long-headed and hard-thinking Scot like Mr. Carnegie, that self-elected apostle of arbitration, really believes in his heart that conflicting national interests and international quarrels can be settled in this manner. The most powerful and autocratic arbitrating force the world ever saw was the Pope of Rome in the Middle Ages, when kings and nations trembled with fear at the bare threat of anathema from the chair of St. Peter. Yet there is not one single occasion in the history of that time when the arbitration of this almost superhuman power proved successful against a popular impulse towards war. On the contrary, it frequently happened that a mere attempt at arbitration on the part of His Holiness did more than anything else to precipitate a war.

Under modern conditions, the existence of a nation will never depend on arbitration or on any other political quackery. The existence of a nation depends on one thing only: the ability of that nation to defend itself and to make war with success. For the last half century Germany, more than any other country in the world, has recognised this. Her geographical position in Europe is dangerous. With hereditary enemies on her eastern and western frontiers, and the seas washing her northern shores, she has found existence hard, and she has made it harder. In her attempts to strengthen her position in Europe she formed an alliance with Austria and Italy. The object of this alliance was war, not peace. But in thinking for a moment that Italy would ever fight for and on the side of Austria, the German Emperor made his first great mistake. Italy fought against Austria, on the side of Prussia, in 1866. Italy fought against Austria, on the side of France, in 1859. And Italy will never be found fighting on the side of Austria. The King of Italy, is a wise and cautious ruler who knows the temper of his people; and he has no desire to follow the example of Manuel of Portugal. So that Germany is left, depending on Austria *only*. What the support of Austria is worth is seen more plainly every day as the war goes on. It is a broken reed. The Army of Austria is a body without a soul. There is no Army in the world which has suffered more or greater defeats, in the last 150 years, than the Austrian. Marengo, Hohenlinden, Ulm, Austerlitz, Eckmuhl, Wagram, Dresden, Solferino, Magenta, Nachod, Skalitz, Sadowa, and down even to Schabatz, where they ran away from the Servians last August, all go to prove that the Austrian soldiers cannot fight and that they never could fight. The patriotism of the Austrian soldier is restricted to the nationality to which he belongs; he hates with the bitterest and fiercest hatred all the other nationalities of the Empire. He is invariably discontented with his rulers, who take but little trouble for his wellbeing or his municipal freedom.

Taking these things into consideration then we must not be surprised at the wholesale surrenders of the Austrian soldiers in battle; at the numbers of unwounded prisoners of war taken by the Russians in Galicia: at the accounts we read of officers flogging their soldiers into the fight and being shot by their own men.

The collapse of Austria can only be a matter of a few weeks; and I should not be at all surprised to hear that Hungary stood on her independent rights and tried to make a separate peace with the Allies. Because even if the result of the war proved most favourable to Austria and Germany, Hungary would gain nothing by it. Whereas if the Allies come out victorious, which is highly probable, Hungary would be ruined. Therefore she will probably agree with her adversary quickly, especially when the Russian lances are seen from the heights of Buda.

It must have been a very great disappointment to the German Emperor that he was unable to celebrate "Sedan Day" in Paris. But his disappointment must hav[illegible]en much greater when he had to retire from t[illegible] walls of Warsaw. However, there are far mo[illegible] bitter disappointments in store for him and f[illegible] people, as events will show.

ENGINEERING IN WAR

BY MR. JAMES R. COATS, B. Sc.; Assoc. M. Inst., C. E.

FOR the purpose of this article, it is proposed to give "Engineering" its broadest meaning. In the Charter of the Institution of Civil Engineers, which is the oldest incorporated body of Engineers, it is set out that Civil Engineering is the "art of directing the great sources of power in nature for the use and convenience of man." Possibly the definition of Military Engineering might therefore be "the art of directing the great sources of power in nature for the abuse and inconvenience of man." The Civil Engineer is a Peace Engineer and the Military Engineer a War Engineer but in the present war the services of both have been utilised to the fullest extent on both sides and their ingenuity and resources taxed to the utmost. In no previous war has the Engineer and his "many inventions" played such an important part. The death-dealing capacity of many terrible engines of destruction have in this war been put to the actual test against a living enemy for the first time. There are also numerous cases when the special circumstances and conditions which have arisen in the field have given further opportunities to the Engineer and he has not been slow in designing and manufacturing new death-dealing appliances to meet the need.

The discoveries of the metals and their uses; of the processes of converting iron into steel and the possibilities of steam, electricity, explosives, etc., have all been taken full advantage of by the Engineer and turned to account in warfare. The Engineer has harnessed all these to the chariot of the God of War.

The modern weapons of war are veritable triumphs of the foundry and Engineering workshops although the skill and ingenuity expended on them are worthy of a better cause. The weapon of the individual soldier is the modern high velocity rifle with its comparatively light weight, its capability of being used for close fighting as a kind of spear, by affixing a steel knife, the bayonet, near the muzzle or as a club without. Its beautifully rifled steel barrel; its very accurate sighting appliances; its steel or nickel coated bullet of small calibre, of great penetration and damaging power; its capabilities for very rapid and continuous fire; its flat trajectory, long range, extreme accuracy and ability to stand the very rough usage demanded by war—make it one of the outstanding examples of the application of Engineering to war. The machine gun is an even more wonderful Engineering triumph with its finely balanced automatic recoil and loading mechanism, which does away with the necessity of loading and unloading by hand and after the filled cartridge belt has been adjusted, only requires the pressing of a button to imbue the machine with life and enable it to send out on its mission of death—a steady stream of bullets at the rate of 450 per minute guided and controlled by the master hand and brain of the "man behind the gun" who if not a trained mechanical Engineer is undoubtedly a very close approximation to it in all things that concern his beloved gun.

Dealing with Artillery, there are many types of weapons, light and heavy, fixed and mobile, each type specially designed and manufactured for the particular work of destruction it is intended to do. The modern field guns are all quick-firers fitted with ingeniously arranged cylinders to take up and dissipate nearly the whole of the fierce recoil of the explosion, which in the older type of gun caused the gun to run a long way backwards and necessitated the relaying of the gun between every shot. They are all breech loading and in the British guns the breech block mechanism with its smooth working, easy action and reliability is a most ingenious application of the interrupted screw and is a beautifully finished example of the work of the machine shop. The 60 pound gun, which so far as we know at present is the heaviest gun, of this type the British Army uses, is a most perfect piece of mechanism and is rightly considered by experts to be the most wickedly destructive type of weapon used by the British Army. It is however an open secret that the British Ordnance Engineers have designed and manufactured very much heavier guns of a mobile type and it is highly probable that these have been sent to the front by now. More than that cannot be said at present. The type of gun known as the howitzer, in its original form is of much greater antiquity than the field-gun. It has a relatively greater calibre, a lower velocity and fires a heavier shell.

Probably the Engineer and his works have been

more in evidence and have had more effect on the evolution of the navy to its present high standard than on the army. It is a far cry from the wooden Man-O'-war of Nelson's day to the heavily armoured floating fortresses of to-day, with its enormous capacities for destruction. Steam has, of course, been mainly responsible for a great deal of the change. In the old Man-O'-war nearly everything was worked by hand and with the exception of a few blocks and tackle, levers and wedges, there were few mechanical appliances in use. In the modern battle-ship, the Engineer has changed all this and nearly everything that in the old days was done by hand is now done mechanically by the agency of steam, electricity, hydraulic power or compressed air. In fact it is doubtful if Nelson could now see one he would recognise the modern battle-ship as a battle-ship at first sight. The ship itself is propelled by powerful engines or turbines, the steam for which is generated in boilers whose furnaces can be arranged to burn either coal or oil-fuel under forced draught. In the engine room, pumps and air compressors provide the hydraulic and pneumatic energy and whirling dynamos generate electricity for all the various purposes in the ship including the lighting of the ship, the wireless telegraph, the search light etc. The big guns in the turrets are elevated, depressed, and swung in training on the target by hydraulic pressure or electricity and the ammunition is brought up from the safety of the magazine in electric or hydraulic lifts and the gun itself is fired by electricity. It is only quite recently that the Engineer in the navy has had his services properly recognised but since that has been done and he has been given rank and grade, this has been greatly for the good of the navy and its efficiency as a fighting arm. In the case of destroyers and even more so in the case of submarines, there is a strong impression that there appears to be little of the sailor left and the Engineer and artificer predominate. The vessels themselves are little more than thin steel shells filled with powerful machinery and manned and handled by remarkably small crews. The submarine must of necessity have two sets of propelling engines, one set for use while on the surface, and the other for use when submerged; the former is usually driven by internal combustion oil engines and in the more recent vessels, kerosene has displaced petrol as the fuel, thereby considerably lessening risks of explosions inside the vessels. Under the surface, the propelling power is generally electric. Compressed air is also used and serves a treble purpose. It is used for discharging torpedoes through the torpedo tubes, for expelling water from the ballast tanks which control the submerging of the vessel and also for keeping the air in the vessel pure while submerged. The lighting of the vessel is of course also done by electricity furnished from the accumulators.

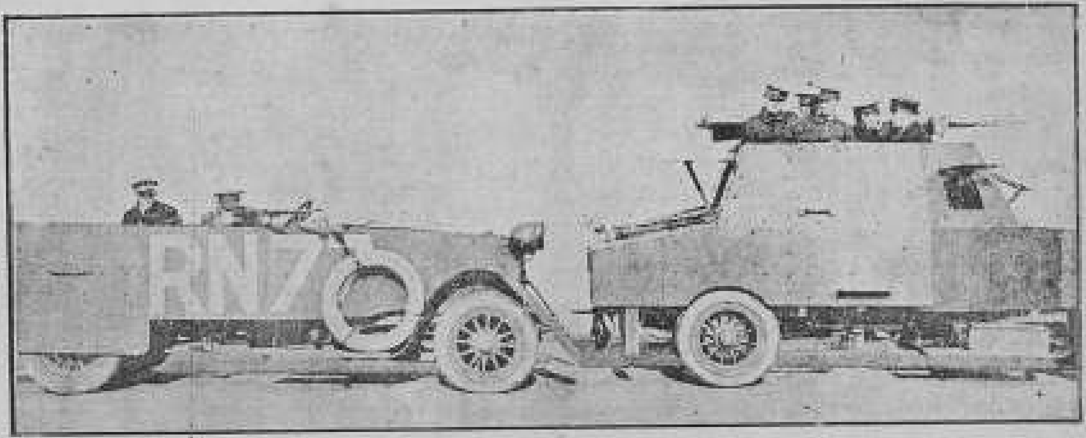
The torpedo which when it does hit its target, probably shares with the mine, the reputation of being the most deadly and destructive weapons of modern naval warfare. Unlike the mine, one type of which floats freely and is blindly carried hither and thither by wave, wind and current and is consequently a danger to friend and foe alike and also to non-belligerents, another type of which is anchored to a particular spot, the controlling and propelling mechanism of the torpedo enables it to be directed against targets at very long ranges with remarkable accuracy and at a very high speed. The propelling engines are actuated by compressed air and the guiding rudders which regulate the depth below the surface at which a torpedo travels and its direction is controlled by gyroscopes.

The "Barr and Stroud" range finder invented and manufactured by Professor Barr (Professor of Civil Engineering, Glasgow University) and Professor Stroud is being used by practically all the nations engaged in this war. It is a wonderfully ingenious apparatus and in the hands of a skilful operator can give the ranges of objects up to great distances more accurately than they can be actually measured by means of the ordinary chain and tape measures commonly used by surveyors.

In the air also as on land, on the sea and under the sea, progress in Engineering has introduced many new factors in war. The dirigible and the aeroplane have proved of immense utility and reliability both as scouts in reconnoissance and as fighting machines and this has only been rendered possible by the enormous improvement made in recent years by motor Engineers in the design and construction of internal combustion engines.

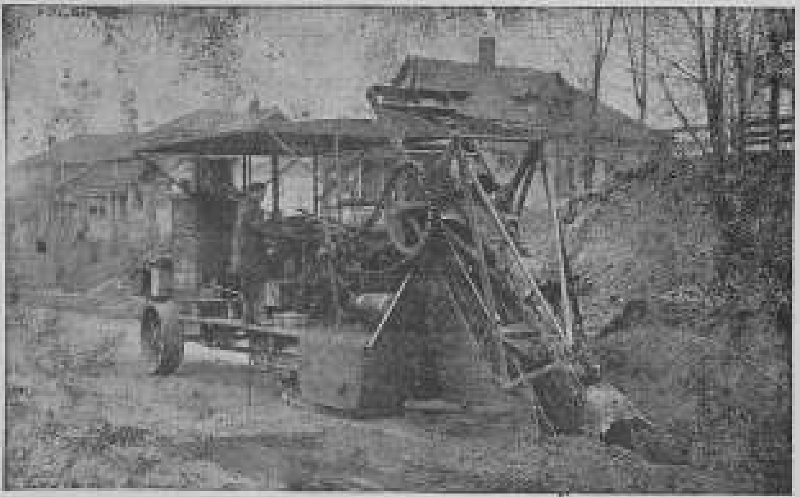
Apart from other factors which make for success of an army in the field, mobility plays a very important part. A belligerent capable of moving troops quickly from or to any particular point has immense advantages over an army which cannot do so as quickly and in this way railways and other forms of mechanical traction have been utilised to an immense extent. The railway Engineers, especially on the continent, have not laid out and constructed their systems solely with the view of facilitating the carrying

AN ARMOURED LORRY AMMUNITION TO THE BRITISH FIRING LINE.



BELGIAN ARMOURED CAR SETTING OUT FOR UHLAN HUNT.

From the "T.P.'s. Journal."



AUSTIN EXCAVATOR FOR SMALL TRENCHES.

AUSTIN EXCAVATOR FOR LARGE TRENCHES.

From "The Indian and Eastern Engineer."

on of the commerce of the country but with a very keen eye on their strategic value in war time. Motor vehicles of all kinds, lorries, busses and pleasure cars have been used to an enormous extent in the present war. Wherever there were roads and sometimes where there were no roads, they have gone and played a great part in the rapid transport of troops, ammunition and supplies. Armoured motors in the firing line and in raids beyond it have been very successfully employed; motor field kitchens have administered to the comfort of the soldier in the firing line and motor ambulances have ensured the speedy conveyance of wounded from the firing line to the hospitals in the rear and portable forges and machine shops provide for the repair of the motors themselves. For these and many other purposes, motor engineers and mechanics have adapted and used their vehicles and their services have been of an inestimable value in this war.

The Electrical Engineer is also greatly in evidence. The telephone, the telegraph and the wireless have been adapted to the needs that have arisen and made portable and convenient for service in the field. The general at the staff head quarters can communicate direct with the firing line and the trenches and the battery commander from his observation post as close to the target as he can get in comparative safety, can communicate directly with his battery concealed two miles or so to the rear, and direct and control the fire of his guns much more efficiently and accurately than if he were actually present with his men. Electric search lights close to the firing line turn night into day, prevent surprise attacks and the movement of the enemy's troops under cover of darkness. Wire entanglements can be and are electrified and a current sent through sufficiently strong to electrocute any soldier who touches the wire.

Whenever a check occurs in the advance of troops in the firing line, it is the duty of every soldier to at once dig some sort of a hole in the ground, if for no other reason than to provide for his own personal safety. If a check in the advance continues for any length of time, the holes are joined up and a trench formed, which as time goes on is gradually deepened, widened and elaborated, until, if no further move is made, the trenches practically become earthen redoubts or forts with overhead cover and capable of giving very fair protection to the occupants even against shell fire. The first part of the work is done by the individual soldier as best as he possibly can, but the further elaborations are planned and laid out by the military engineers of which every modern army maintains as part of its organization a specially trained corps, including mounted and dismounted men, who do most of the rough engineering work required by an army in the field. They are drilled, trained and armed in the same manner as the ordinary soldier and are just as efficient fighting men. Amongst their manifold duties they construct temporary roads and railway lines, trenches, and redoubts, build temporary bridges and also destroy bridges, roads and railways etc., likely to be of use to the enemy if they fell into his hands.

They carry explosives and all sorts of tools, axes, saws, etc., in their equipment and clear away trees, bushes, houses etc., likely to interfere with the advance or the field of fire of the troops which they accompany. They number skilled surveyors and map makers amongst them, and every kind of skilled tradesmen, bricklayers, masons, carpenters, fitters etc., and are altogether a most useful body of men without whom an army in the field could scarcely exist.

They have proved of the greatest use in the peculiar trench fighting now taking place when it has often only been possible to advance by driving zig zag saps either open or blind, which latter are really tunnels, as close to the enemy's trenches as possible and then from the end of the sap-heads opening out trenches where sufficient troops can be collected to rush the enemy's trenches. It has been by this and similar methods that many of the small but important advances recently achieved have been made. Both sides have applied the method and sometimes the saps have met between the trenches and sometimes the saps have been driven right up to the opposing trenches and these blown up by explosives.

There are many trench-digging machines ordinarily designed for peaceful agricultural purposes which can dig out trenches at a high rate of speed and with a great saving of time and labour. These machines must be of verygreat use to an army which is being slowly pushed back from trench to trench and it is believed that our enemies have made considerable use of them and have dug row upon row of trenches to their rear.

It has often been said that this is an engineer's war, a war of machines and metals and that other things being equal the best machines and metals must win. If that be so, then there can be no doubt as to the result, for our machines and metals have always been and still are the best that the world can produce.

ARTILLERY IN WARFARE

BY MAJOR W. B. WALKER, R. A.

AS a preface to this article it should be understood that the information offered in its pages is not intended to contain an accurate description of any gun, or its mechanism, but merely deals with the subject on broad theoretical lines, and endeavours, in as simple words as possible, to give a general idea to those who have not, perhaps, had an opportunity of studying the subject, and who may be bewildered by the miscellany of names such as guns, howitzers, mortars, shrapnel, fuzes, trench-guns and so on which appear in the newspapers now-a-days.

The importance of artillery was astonishingly brought home in the Russo-Japanese War. The Japanese had excellent guns and seemed to take to this, to them new subject, in a wonderful manner—as they had amalgamated the best points of all nations in material gunnery and fire tactics with the makings of their artillery. This, in combination with their inherent abilities as soldiers, gave them an immense advantage over the Russian gunners. But it was their siege guns, which brought home what guns were really capable of.

The forts at Port Arthur had been built before these enormous howitzers had been thought of; and though strong enough to be impregnable against their contemporary guns, were literally pulverized by the Japanese fire. The Russians, concerning whose physical bravery there has never been any doubt, stood it as long as human flesh and blood could, but as the strength of a chain is that of its weakest link, so is the endurance of the human body limited by its nerve system—and that of the Russians was shattered.

The same occurred at Liege—the defence of the Liege forts against the German attack is a story which will read as one of the most glorious pages in the history of any nation. As long as it was a question of merely numerical strength, and equal guns, against him, General Leman and the gallant defenders would have foiled the Germans, but when the Leviathans were brought up, the forts which, with those of Antwerp, were the most up-to-date and scientifically constructed in the world, were literally blown from under them.

But perhaps now it would be advisable to give the reader a rapid general idea of what are usually classified under the common generic term, guns. Only such guns as are used in the land service, and especially those used in the present war will be discussed.

These we may divide into four classes:—

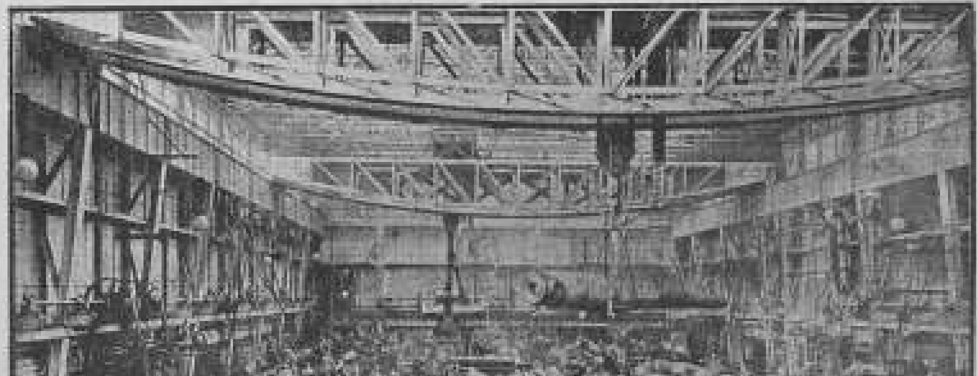
Quick-firers or field guns, field (or slight) howitzers, siege guns, (heavy howitzers or mortars) and anti-air-craft guns.

Their various functions are as follows:—

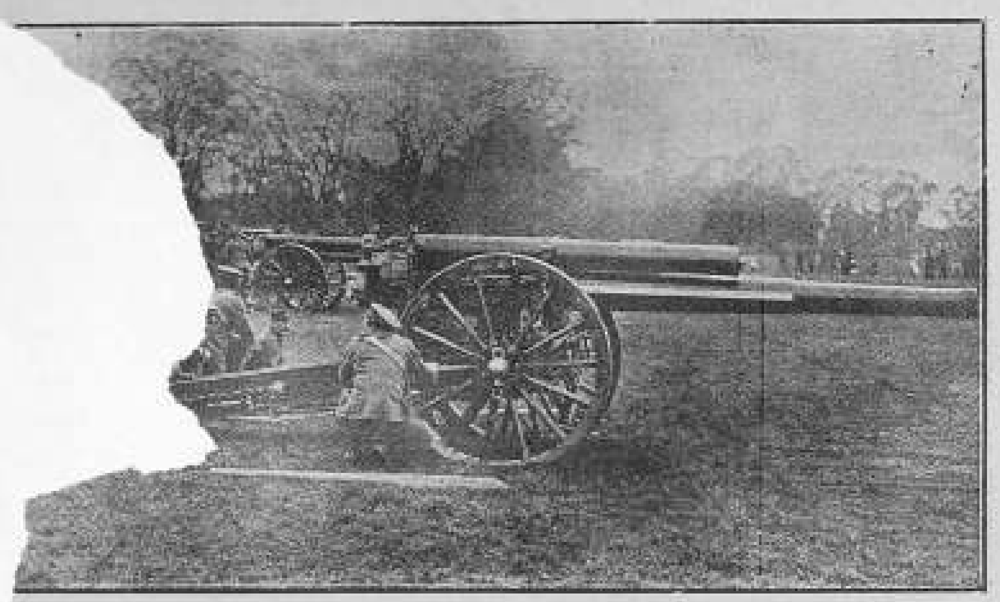
The function of the field-gun, in addition to the direct destruction to life, and gaining the mastery over the opposing Artillery, is to demoralize the infantry and prepare the way for the assault of its own infantry. It is very mobile and with its unit (a British field battery consists of 6 guns with their complement of limbers and wagons, each with their team of six horses) it is capable of being rapidly transferred to any point at which it is required. They gallop to the position indicated, each team swings round so as to bring the muzzle of the gun to face the enemy—the gun is unhooked from the limber which contains the ammunition supply, and the limber being moved to a convenient position beside its own gun, the teams and wagons which contain an extra supply of ammunition, trot off to some spot under cover. The guns, now having been given the range, and the time fuzes being set to the correct timing for that range, open a very rapid shrapnel fire on the enemy to prevent him from making adequate resistance to the infantry which is advancing under cover of the rain of shrapnel from its own guns. This fire is kept up until the infantry is within a very few hundred yards of its objective and the opponents are considered to have been sufficiently shaken for the assault.

Next we have the light field howitzers. These are weapons which have come very much into favour in the last few years. They are extremely useful and have encroached largely on the province of the field-gun proper. Like the field-gun it fires shrapnel, but it also in addition fires a high explosive shell, with both low muzzle velocity and correspondingly high trajectory. As may be imagined this is most effective for searching out the enemy in trenches behind cover or behind light fortifications.

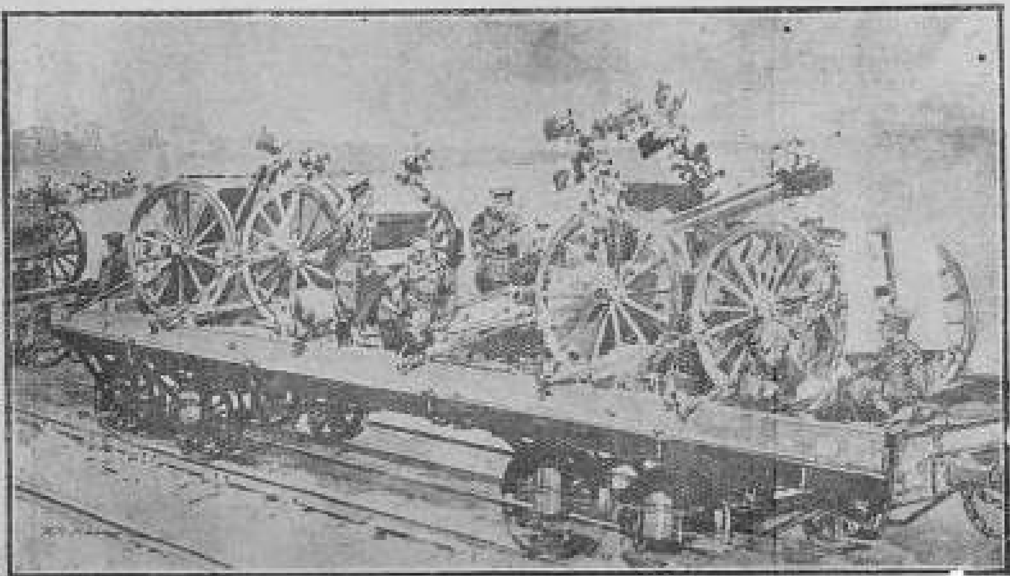
FIELD ARTILLERY.



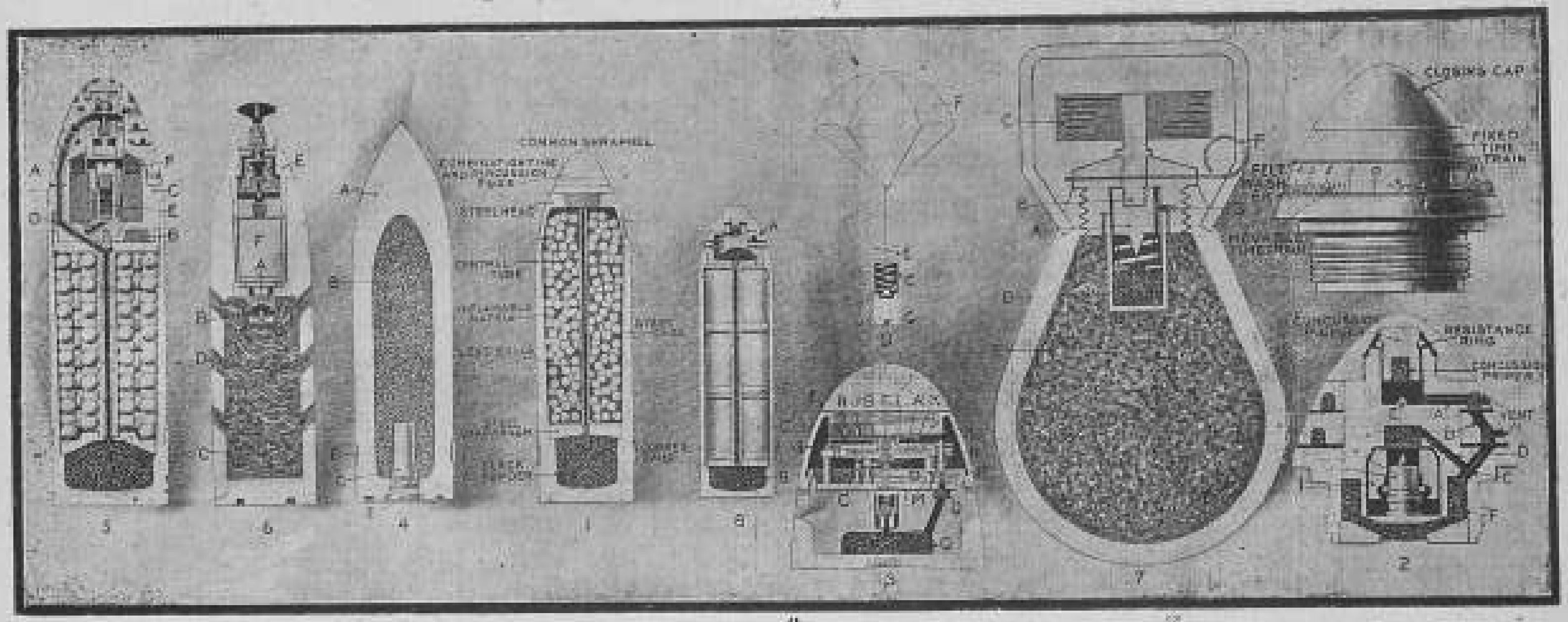
THE GERMAN WAR FACTORY.—KRUPP'S.]



ROYAL HORSE ARTILLERY:—60 POUNDER GUN.

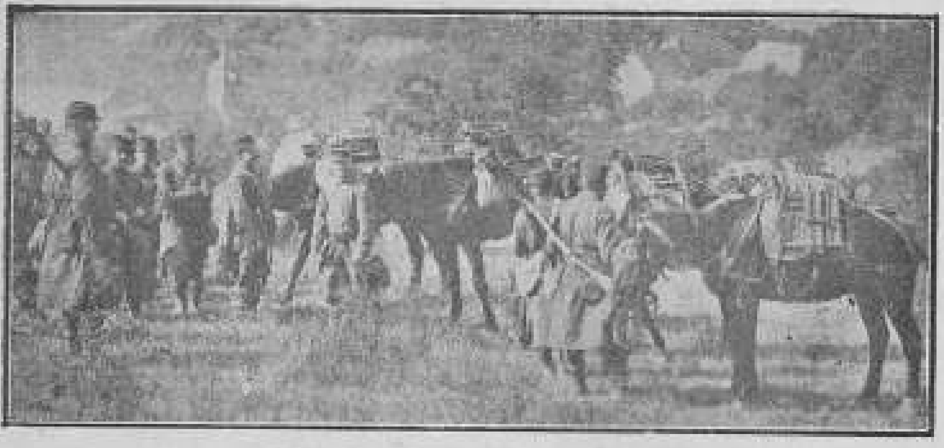


BRITISH GUNS ON THE WAY TO THE FRONT.
Flower-decked and Flagged by France.

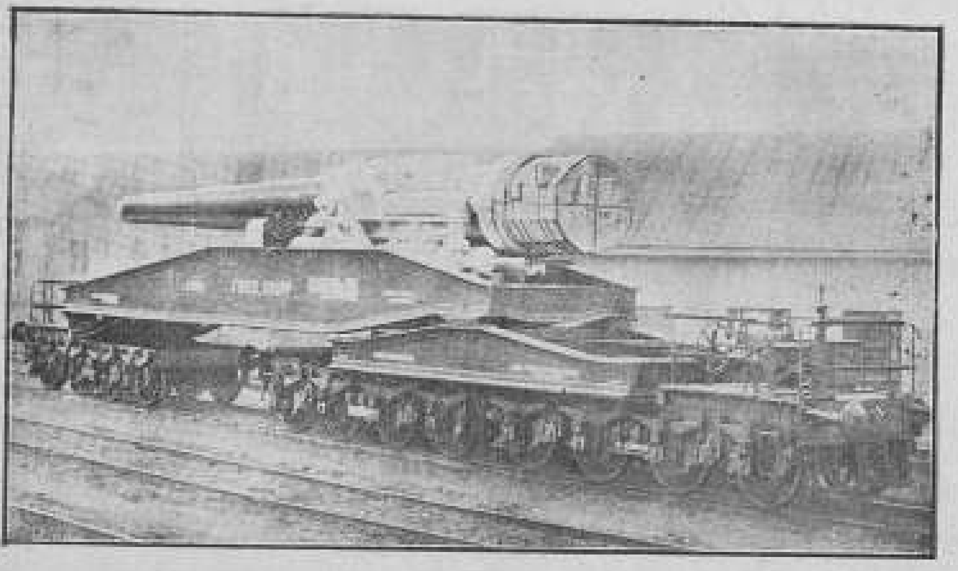


TYPICAL PROJECTILES OF FIELD ARTILLERY AND AIRCRAFT, SHOWN IN SECTION

From "The Scientific American."



THE NEW FRENCH SIEGE GUNS.



BIG KRUPP'S GUN TO THE FRONT.

Our 18 pounder field-gun is very little behind the French 75 millimetre, and our 4·5 inch is the most accurate and best light howitzer in existence and it seems a pity that, in order to avoid this multiplicity of guns, one weapon combining the advantages of both should not be evolved, even if one were to lose slightly the great advantage of the field-gun *viz.*, its extremely rapid rate of accurate fire. The points to be aimed at would be, that it should be a real quick-firing weapon, more mobile than the present 4·5 inch and using fixed ammunition of two descriptions, shrapnel up to 7,000 yards with a full charge, and a high explosive shell with a reduced charge giving a high trajectory and consequent searching power, capable of ranging 5,000 yards. I do not think that a gun, which would fire a shell of more than 21 pounds with a low trajectory 7,000 yards, and yet at the same time not give too great a weight behind the team, could be evolved. Such a gun would be, it is thought, very effective as it would have all the value of the quick-firing field-gun, and yet the searching power of a howitzer; and its own infantry could advance under cover of its fire nearer to hostile lines than they can at present with the 18 pounder.

Opinion formerly was against the necessity of having a field gun with a range greater than 5,500 yards, because of the difficulty of observing the effect of fire at a longer range—but aeroplanes in this war have done away with such limitations. They are most useful to batteries as they can fly over and locate the enemy's guns, drop smoke bombs on their positions and so give the desired area for their own guns to concentrate their fire on, and then signal any corrections which may be necessary to bring that fire exactly on to the objective.

The French do not believe in howitzers as much as the Germans, for the following reasons which they claim in favour of their "Soixante quinze," *viz.*, that the mobility of the smaller guns is a factor of safety, and that they can fire an infinitely greater number of rounds in a given time, as in their "Raffales" or "Sheaves of fire". Many small shells will do more harm than fewer large ones; big guns may have a greater moral effect, but actual damage is preferable to noise.

The French can, to a certain extent, do without light howitzers as they only, of all European nations, use high explosives in their field artillery, and this undoubtedly enables them to kill vertically behind shields and in trenches.

There is no question that the French field-gun is the best in the world and that the German is the worst in Europe, and the method by which the latter reached this undesirable position must have been a source of great heart burning to them. In 1896 the Germans re-armed all their field artillery with what was undoubtedly the most up-to-date gun in Europe, and it is generally thought that France, who had been making secret experiments with a quick-firing-gun, knew that Germany had to re-arm, and waited until that country had been put to this enormous expense and then, in 1897, introduced their quick-firer the "Soixante quinze" which completely revolutionized artillery tactics and made Germany's 96 pattern out of date.

In later years Germany did convert her 96 pattern, and make it into a quick-firer but though they did the best they could with it, it could never be the same as the perfect French gun which had been designed all through from beginning as a quick firer.

The essential point of a quick-firing-gun is that the carriage does not jump about when the gun is discharged, and so necessitate fresh laying and the running up of the carriage between each round, as the gun recoils independently of its lower carriage, and is brought back mechanically to the firing position after the recoil has been completed. It also fires fixed ammunition, that is, the propelling charge is in a rigid brass case; and the shell being fixed into the mouth, and the primer or cap into the base of the case it is in fact a glorified rifle cartridge.

The gun itself consists of several concentric layers, the innermost of which is a tube, and round this is wound steel wire of oblong section, under tensions which differ according to the various interior stresses, which will have to be met at different points along the length of the bore, due to the ignition of the firing charge. Outside this is an outer tube or jacket, to the rear end of which is attached a breech ring, which carries the breech mechanism, and also an attachment to which is fixed the end of the hydraulic recoil buffer. On the outside of the jacket and running its full length are projecting wings, which slide in corresponding grooves in the top carriage.

The top carriage, or cradle, which is attached to the lower carriage by rocking trunnions, has in it two apertures; in the lower the gun is free to slide backwards and forwards in the grooves mentioned above, and in the other is firstly contained a mechnical device for checking the

recoil of the gun, and secondly the means of again bringing the gun back to its firing position.

If readers will study the illustrations of guns and howitzers, which appear elsewhere in this magazine, they will observe, one, two or even three cylinders running parallel to the gun. Where there are three of these cylinders, two of them would contain hydraulic buffers in which are a piston and piston rod and also a liquid mixture. When the gun is fired this liquid is forced from one side of the piston head to the other, through graduated openings, which causes a constant pressure to be set up against the force of recoil, until the gun is brought to rest. But meantime certain very powerful springs which are contained in the third cylinder have been compressed, also by the force of the recoil. When the latter is completed, these springs re-assert themselves and bring the gun back to the firing position.

The breech of the gun is tapped interiorally with a screw thread and on the breech block, exteriorally, is a thread of the same pitch as above. Now this screw threading is planed off, through alternate quarters of a circle, from both male and female threads, so that when the breech block is moved into the breech, its 4 sections of thread pass over the 4 planed sections in the breech, and when home, by giving a quarter turn to the breech block, the threads in the latter become interlocked with those in the former. By means of various mechanical devices the whole operation is done by one horizontal swing and is known as a "single motion breech mechanism."

A steel shield, the full width of the carriage between the wheels, and four or five feet high, is attached to the axle and affords protection to the men serving the gun from shrapnel and rifle bullets.

Under the trail eye of the gun is a broad serrated spade which becomes imbedded in the ground on the first shot being fired and effectually prevents any subsequent movement of the carriage. On either side of the trail are fixed seats; on the right hand one, sits the man who gives the necessary elevation to the top carriage, (which carries the gun) and also works the firing lever, on the left hand side sits the layer, who with his eye on the telescope keeps on the target all the time.

The gun slides backwards and forwards, between these two men as it is fired, without interfering with their work. Before the quick-firer was introduced, these two men would have had to stand clear during the actual firing process, as both the gun and carriage on the shock of discharge, recoiled violently several feet.

Next in order we have the heavy artillery which of late years has made enormous strides, and has been specially studied by the Germans, who have not only, as other nations do, put their 4, 5 and 6 inch light howitzers on wheeled carriages, but have evolved a system of mounting their 8·4 and 11·2 inch howitzers and mortars on wheels also.

The function of heavy artillery is to come into action before the battle proper commences and by means of high angle, and indirect fire it will delay the enemy, force him to deploy before he wishes to do so, and will prevent the arrival of his field artillery within a zone, from which its fire would be effective. The heavy artillery would also be most useful in concentrating fire on some point, which the enemy is bound to pass in close formation, such as a pass, or approach to a bridge. It would, owing to its high angle and extremly accurate ranging, be of inestimable help to its own infantry when advancing especially when advancing against a strongly fortified position, and it would continue its fire until its infantry was almost into the enemy lines.

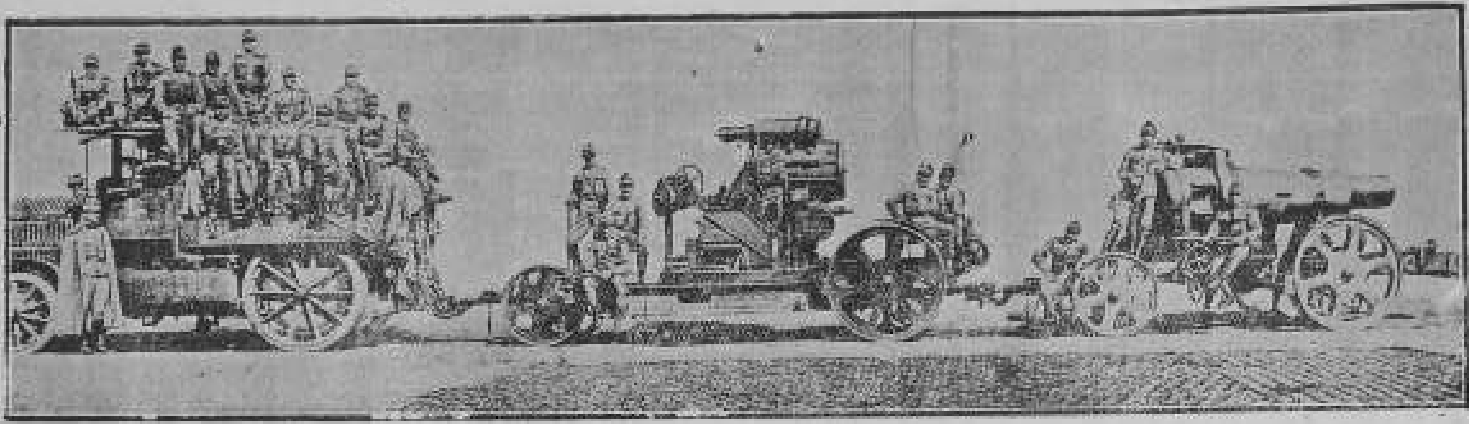
With the British Expeditionary Forces at first were a few batteries of 60 pounder guns, ranging 10,000 yards and firing high explosive and shrapnel shell. As may be imagined these guns proved extremely useful and put many German batteries out of action, since the latter could not live at a range longer than one at which they themselves could fire. As soon as it was found how useful these and similar guns such as 4·7 inch and heavy howitzers were, Sir John French asked for a supply from England. If these could have been brought into the firing line at the battle of the Aisne, it would have shortened the period of that battle by days, but unfortunately the Germans when retreating had destroyed the bridges as they passed, and so delayed the advance of our heavy artillery.

ANTI-AIR-CRAFT GUNS

There is at present little doubt that the best means of keeping off air craft is by counter attack with air craft: however, the subject is still in its infancy and all armies have designed some species of gun to meet the emergency; and it is generally considered that the following points are necessary;

The gun should be about 2 inch calibre, be capable of firing almost vertically, have an all round traverse, and preferably one worked as

THE GERMAN SAW-EDGED BAYONET.



THE GREAT GERMAN GUN THAT SHATTERED THE FORTS OF ANTWERP IN A FEW DAYS.

were the 3 and 6 pounder Hotchkiss guns of former days, by means of a shoulder pad actuated by the layer and having a very quick pitch screw thread working into an elevating arc to give rapid elevation. It should have a very rapid rate of fire and very high muzzle velocity and giving as flat a trajectory as possible.

The advantage of a flat trajectery is that the velocity of the shell is so great, and its time of flight so short, that the force of gravity has not very long to act on it and consequently its flight is nearer to the direct line between gun and target, than it would be if it took longer to cover the same distance; because in the latter case you would have to aim higher above the target to allow for the drop due to gravity over a longer period.

Take, as an exaggerated case, a gun whose trajectory is so curved that to reach a target on the same level as itself at 3000 yards, you must elevate the axis of the gun through 30°. The range table for 3000 yards would accordingly be marked 30°. Now imagine an aeroplane coming straight towards the gun and you wished to fire at it when it was at 3000 yards away and bore 60° above horizontal. You would lay your sights on to the aeroplane and suddenly discover that your gun was pointing vertically in the air, and the shell would fall back on yourself if fired, because you had elevated the gun through 30° above the line of sight as being the correct elevation for 3000 yards.

On the question of projectiles there appear to be divided opinions. Some authorities advocate a high explosive shell with very sensitive percussion fuze, as they say that the pilot in an aeroplane is protected by an armoured driving seat from shrapnel, and even if a shrapnel bullet hits the envelope of a dirigible, the pressure of gases inside would soon close up the puncture made by a shrapnel bullet.

On the other side, the shrapnel advocates say that shrapnel bullets may easily destroy one of the numerous small stays or the steering apparatus on which so much depends, and to enable the high explosive shell to be effective, you must get a direct hit in order to make the fuze act; and it is much more difficult to obtain a direct hit with one shell, than with 200 dispersed bullets out of a shell.

But all agree that some form of smoke tracer with the shell is necessary, so that it may be estimated from the flight of the shell what corrections should be made to bring the next round on to the target.

Now we come to the question of the enormous siege guns which Germany has sprung on the world as a complete surprise. There is little doubt that some of these 16·8 inch howitzers were built secretly at Essen about six years ago, and kept for "der Tag." Nothing is known of them but it is more or less easy to work out the following approximate proportional figures for such howitzers as compared with the largest ones in use up to the birth of the new Leviathan:—

		11·2	16·8
Weight of Ord: with breech mechanism ..	tons	6·3	21·3
Weight in action ..	„	14·8	50
Heaviest load to be transported including transporting wagon.	„	9·25	31
Weight of shell ..	lbs.	750	2600
Weight of bursting charge (high explosive) ..	„	114	384
Recoil energy in foot tons ..	„	380	1530

A weapon such as the above could not possibly be fired off its own wheels, as no wheeled carriage could stand such a recoil energy—but could be fired from the ground or a platform, if the weight were evenly distributed over an area of 200 square feet. On a platform 20′ × 10′ the vertical pressure per square foot on the earth, on firing at its maximum elevation of 65°, would be one ton—a by no means unreasonable amount on ordinarily firm ground.

It would be easy enough to transport such a howitzer by rail, but it could not be fired off any railway truck constructed. Its several parts could easily be divided up into several loads for travelling, probably 12, with ammunition supply per howitzer drawn by tractors; which will generally draw 3 times their own weight—but the scope of movement is very little, as on none but main roads could bridges be found sufficiently strong to stand such loads. Its services in action must be extremely slow. Once a shell gets home it will undoubtedly wipe the page clean; but for efficiency it is thought that a maximum of 12 inch is the largest howitzer fit to take into the field.

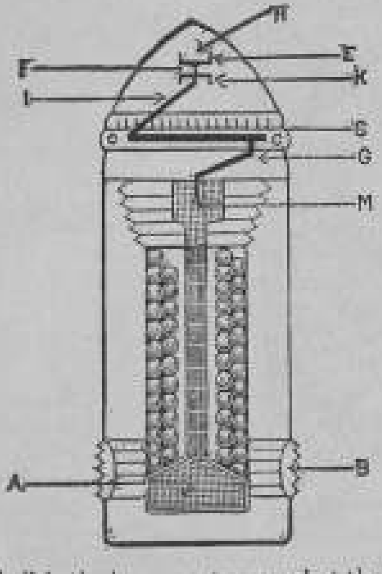
We next come to quite a new invention —Trench Howitzers,—again a Krupp model from Essen.—The howitzer only weighs about one hundred-weight, and is of small bore about 1½ inch, fixed on an iron bed which is capable of being placed on wheels weighing gross under 1,200 lbs.

In this howitzer is placed a small explosive charge, then a wooden rod which projects beyond the muzzle and loosely on this rod, and outside the muzzle, is an enormous circular thin

walled shell, filled with high explosive, weighing about 187 lbs.: and fitted with a fuze. This is fired at an elevation of from 45 to 80 degrees, with a muzzle velocity of 200 feet a second, and it carries at most about 350 yards. The fuze acts when the shell hits the ground and detonates the charge. It is used in trenches only.

Perhaps it would simplify matters if a general description of a fuze and shrapnel shell, and their action were given.

A fuze is a metal construction screwing into head of a shell and containing an arrangement of powder composition arranged in such a form that being actuated by a percussion cap it will ignite the bursting charge of a shell, at any required moment.



The shell is the lower part screwed at the mouth to take the fuze. Down the centre of the shell runs a tube filled with powder acting as a train to the main charge of powder contained in a little tin cup "A."; Round the tube the space is filled in with shrapnel bullets made of lead ½ inch diameter in small sizes up to bullets of iron nearly half a pound in weight. The outside of the shell is a clean fit in the bore of the gun, but it will be noticed that at " B " is a band let into the shell. The exterior circumference of this copper band is greater than the bore of the gun, and so when the shell is fired, this soft copper is squeezed into the grooves of the gun, which being spiral, cause the shell to revolve about its longer axis. After the shell has left the muzzle this spin is still retained, and it is that which enables the shell to always fly point foremost.

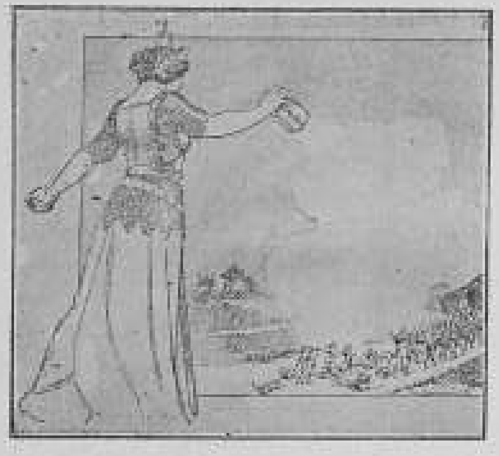
Screwed into the front portion of a shell, will be seen the fuze, the body of which is now generally made of aluminium and contains the following working parts. " E " is a copper cylindrical disc to which is firmly attached a needle " F ". "H" is a hole passing through the walls of the fuze and through "E"; "K" is a copper cap filled with a sensitive detonating mixture such as fulminate of mercury. " I " is a channel containing a comparatively slow burning powder composition connecting cap, with "CC" which is a ring of powder contained in the wall of the fuze. " G " is a ring capable of moving round the central axis of the fuze but independently of the remainder of the fuze. Through it is a small hole leading by a small channel to the main magazine " M " of the fuze; outside the hole, in " G" is an arrow head which can, by twisting the ring, be brought opposite any of the graduations on the ring above it, and so regulates the length of composition between the left edge of " CC" and the aperture in " G" through which the flash will pass to the magazine "M". The graduations are worked out from a table which shows that if you require a shell to burst after flying say 4,500 yards you give it a certain graduation on the ring. The graduations naturally vary for each range. Before the cartridge is put into the gun, a safety copper split pin is pulled out from " N " and the pellet " E " is practically free. When the gun is fired, the pellet being free, sets back the needle, explodes " K " and a flash passes through " I" into the composition ring "E", which gradually turns round until, by the time it has travelled the correct distance, it has reached the hole in " G " whence a flash passes to " M " and through the tube of shrapnel to " A ". This though only a few ounces of powder, blows off the forepart of the shell and the bullets fly forward in a cone of dispersion and with the speed at which the shell was flying before " A " was exploded.

The whole subject of guns and gun construction must be a most fascinating one for those whose business it is to design and work them, for there are so many possibilities and such a field for originality.

It is the hope of the writer that, though only touching the outermost fringe of the subject, he may have interested and perhaps helped the general reader a little.

CHRIST AND CHRISTENDOM.

DUTCH AND GERMAN CARTOONISTS AIR THEIR VIEWS ON GAS.



GERMANIA'S CROWNING GLORY.

"The poisonous gas: Germany's newest and most glorious means of conquest."

—*De Amsterdammer.*

German poison-clouds in Flanders.

"The vernal breezes softly play,
Speeding all men upon their way."

—*Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

The Use of Asphyxiating Gases by the Germans

BY THE HON. SURGEON-GENERAL W. B BANNERMAN, C.S.I.

THE effects produced by the gas used against our troops by the Germans would seem to require the coining of a new word to describe adequately its prolonged and terrible effects. It will be realised from the following account that death in many cases is not from immediate suffocation, but from a gradual filling up of the lungs by secretion from the lining membrane of the bronchial tubes themselves, leading eventually to the slow drowning of the unfortunate sufferer. Death does not take place for several days and during this time the victim is unable to lie down but sits up struggling for breath and enduring indescribable tortures. The following account from the *Times* gives a vivid description of the sufferings of our brave soldiers:

Yesterday and the day before I went with—to see some of the men in hospital at— who were "gassed" yesterday and the day before on Hill 60. The whole of England and the civilised world ought to have the truth fully brought before them in vivid detail, and not wrapped up as at present. When we got to the hospital we had no difficulty in finding out in which ward the men were, as the noise of the poor devils trying to get breath was sufficient to direct us. We were met by a doctor belonging to our division, who took us into the ward. There were about twenty of the worst cases in the ward, on mattresses, all more or less in a sitting position, propped up against the walls. Their faces, arms, hands were of a shiny grey black colour, with mouths open and lead-glazed eyes, all swaying slightly backwards and forwards trying to get breath. It was a most appalling sight, all these poor black faces, struggling, struggling for life. What with the groaning and noise of the effort for breath, Colonel—who, as every one knows, has had as wide an experience as anyone all over the savage parts of Africa, told me to-day that he never felt so sick as he did after the scene in these cases. There is practically nothing to be done for them, except to give them salt and water to try to make them sick. The effect the gas has is to fill the lungs with a watery, frothy matter which gradually increases and rises till it fills up the whole lungs and comes up to the mouth; then they die; it is suffocation; slow drowning, taking in some cases one or two days. We have lost hundreds of men who died in the trenches, and over half the men who reached hospital have died. Eight died last night out of the twenty I saw, and most of the others I saw will die; while those who get over the gas invariably develop acute pneumonia. It is without doubt the most awful form of scientific torture. Not one of the men I saw in hospital had a scratch or wound. The nurses and doctors were all working their utmost against this terror; but one could see from the tension of their nerves that it was like fighting a hidden danger which was overtaking every one. A German prisoner was caught with a respirator in his pocket; the pad was analysed and found to contain hypo sulphite of soda with one per cent. of some other substance.

The gas is in a cylinder, from which when they send it out it is propelled a distance of 100 yards; it there spreads. Please make a point of publishing this in every paper in England. English people, men and women, ought to know exactly what is going on, also members of both Houses. The people of England can't know. Germans have given out that it is a rapid, painless death. The liars! No torture could be worse than to give them a dose of their own gas. The gas, I am told, is chlorine, and probably some other gas in the shells they burst. They think ammonia kills it.

The following particulars are from the British Medical Journal, and may, therefore, be relied on as being correct. The gases were first used against the trenches occupied by the French troops, on the 22nd of April, and a few days afterwards were employed against the Canadians who had to make good the gap in the line thus caused. We know how well and nobly the Canadians performed their task of stemming the on-rushing tide of elated and triumphant Germans.

On the 23rd April, Sir John French reported that the enemy had made "use of a large number of appliances for the production of asphyxiating gas. The quantity produced indicates a long and deliberate preparation for the employment of devices contrary to the terms of the Hague Convention, to which the enemy subscribed." Dr. J. S. Haldane—brother of Lord Haldane—and the well known authority on choke damp in mines and all questions related thereto, was at once sent over to France by the War Office, and reported on the 27th of April that along with Sir Wilmot Herringham, Consulting Physician to the British Forces, he had examined several men from Canadian battalions, who were suffering from the effects of gas poisoning, or "gassing" as the soldier calls it. They were struggling for breath and blue in the face. An examination of the blood by the spectroscope and by other means showed that the blueness was not caused by the presence of any unusual pigment in it. There was nothing to account for the blueness of the face and the struggling for breath, but the one fact that they were suffering from acute bronchitis due to the effects of the irritating fumes they had inhaled. This was confirmed by *post mortem* examination, which revealed the usual signs of

acute inflammation of the windpipe and bronchial tubes, with outpouring of fluid into the air-passages of the lungs. Captain Bertram, of the 8th Canadians, described the appearance of the gas clouds as follows:—He was about 600 yards from the German trenches and observed "first, a white smoke rising from the German trenches to a height of about 3 feet, and then in front of the white smoke appeared a greenish cloud not rising to more than about 7 feet, when it had drifted along the ground to the British trenches. He made a counter-attack about fifteen minutes after the gas came over, and saw twenty-four men lying dead from the effects of the gas on a small stretch of road leading from the advanced trenches to the supports."

It appears from the symptoms and other facts observed that the gas used is chlorine, which at ordinary temperatures and pressures has a greenish yellow colour and is heavier than the air. But some French chemists think it may be bromine, which is also heavier than air and has a yellowish red colour. They point out that the Germans have at their disposal large stocks of this latter chemical obtained from the mother liquor of the Stassfurt potash industry.

The following description of the case of a powerfully-built young Canadian gives a vivid idea of the dreadful effects produced by the gas, whether it be chlorine or bromine:—"Both his feet were so cold and blue as to suggest impending gangrene. His face was slightly livid, and he constantly coughed up thin evil-smelling fluid containing many clots of blood. His breathing was hurried, 50 to the minute; as also his pulse, about 130. There is nothing to show why the feet should be in such a condition, but it suggested that one or more of the arteries had been closed in some way. He had a similar spot of blackness on the arm. It appears, therefore, that the gas is not only asphyxiating but likewise poisonous. It acts in various ways. Thus it may cause sudden death by spasm of the glottis, that is, closure of the vocal chords. The man is unable to breathe and dies of choking. Secondly, it may act more slowly by causing a profuse secretion of fluid into the tubes of the lungs. These gradually fill up with this fluid and death ensues by a slow process of drowning in the course of one or two days. Thirdly, a more chronic affliction may be set up and acute bronchitis and pneumonia may carry the victim off."

Whichever way it acts the suffering caused is extreme, and those guilty of using the gas may certainly be described as barbarians or worse. What would Chaucer's knight have said to opponents such as these:

"A knight there was, and that a worthy man,
That fro the time that he firste began
To riden out, he loved chevalrie,
Trouthe and honour, freedom and curtesie."

Among our soldiers we find many who might have these epithets applied to them; among our foes there must be few indeed who can claim any of them. Otherwise such fiendish methods of warfare would not have even been imagined, far less used as we have sure proof they have been by the Germans.

On this subject we would remind our readers that Germany was a signatory to the following article in the Hague Convention:—

"The Contracting Powers agree to abstain from the use of projectiles, the object of which is the diffusion of asphyxiating or deleterious gases."

The above was signed by the representatives of:—

Great Britain	...	July 9th, 1899.
Belgium	...	" "
Denmark	...	" "
Spain	...	" "
United States of Mexico	...	" "
France	...	" "
Greece	...	" "
Montenegro	...	" "
Netherlands	...	" "
Persia	...	" "
Portugal	...	" "
Roumania	...	" "
Russia	...	" "
Siam	...	" "
Sweden and Norway	...	" "
Turkey	...	" "
Bulgaria	...	" "
Germany	...	September 4, 1900.
Austria—Hungary	...	" "
Italy	...	" "
Japan	...	October 6, 1900.
Switzerland	...	December 19, 1900.
Servia	...	May, 11, 1901.
Luxemburg	...	July 11, 1901.
China	...	November 11, 1904.

THE RULES OF WAR IN WARFARE

BY

CAPTAIN A. J. H. RUSSELL, I. M. S.

THE laws of war are the rules respecting warfare with which belligerents and neutrals are bound to comply. Up to the earlier part of the middle ages no such rules existed, but during the latter part, the influence of Christianity and decent humanity began to make themselves felt and the practices of warfare became less savage. Isolated milder war practises became in the course of time usages,—*usus in belli*—and these usages were gradually developed into legal rules by custom and treaties.

The laws of war therefore consist partly of customary rules which have grown up in practice, and partly of written rules, *i. e.*, rules purposely agreed upon by the Powers in international treaties. Along with these there are in existence usages concerning warfare; but while the laws of war are legally binding, usages are not, and can therefore be disregarded by belligerents. At the same time usages tend gradually to broaden into legal rules of warfare and the greater number of the present laws of war have grown up in this way.

While a belligerent is justified in using any amount and any kind of force which is necessary for the purpose of war, the principles of humanity should forbid all such kinds and degrees of violence as are not necessary for the purposes of war. There is also the principle of chivalry which demands a certain amount of fairness in offence and defence.

These rules of International law apply only to warfare between civilised nations where both parties understand them and are prepared to carry them out. In wars with uncivilized states and tribes their place is taken by the discretion of the commander, and such rules of justice and humanity as recommend themselves in the circumstances of the case. The opinion that the only moral code which Germany would recognise was embodied in the adage "all's fair in love and war" was held by not a few military authorities previous to the outbreak of hostilities on the 4th August. In the eyes of Germany treaties and conventions are mere "scraps of paper" to be ignored when it is convenient to do so.

Civilised peoples have made various attempts to formulate and organise rules which provide for ordinary humanity in war. In 1864 the first Geneva Convention was held. A Declaration of St. Petersburg in 1868 was followed by a Brussels Conference in 1874, and a second Geneva Convention in 1906, while there have also been two Hague Conferences, one in 1899 and one in 1907.

It was understood that the decisions reached at these Conferences and Conventions would have the force of international law and that no deliberate breach of them would be attempted by any civilised power by whom they had been ratified. In the following brief resumé of some of the rules of war agreed to at these several conferences, it will be readily seen that German procedure is everywhere the same. Their atrocities in Belgium have been proved by the Belgian Commission of Enquiry on the Violation of the Rights of Nations and of the Laws and Customs of War, to be conclusively true and are such as rouse the indignation of the whole world against German "culture." The devastations of the invaded countries, including incendiarism, murder, pillage and rape, appear to be due not to isolated acts of indiscipline but to be carried out under the instructions and orders of superior officers. "They constitute a negation of every human and international law and bring back modern warfare after centuries of civilisation to the methods of barbarian invasions".

Among the regulations of section 2 of the Hague Convention of 1907 dealing with "Hostilities" we find the following clauses.

"It is especially prohibited: To kill or wound an enemy who, having laid down arms or having no longer means of defence has surrendered at discretion;

"To declare that no quarter will be given;

"To destroy or seize the enemy's property, unless such destruction or seizure be imperatively demanded by the necessities of war;

Further, the attack or bombardment of towns, villages, habitations, or buildings which are not defended is prohibited.

"The commander of an attacking force, before commencing a bombardment, except in the case of an assault, should do all he can to warn the authorities;

"In sieges and bombardments all necessary steps should be taken to spare, as far as possible, edifices devoted to religion, art, science, and charity, provided they are not used at the same time for military purposes;

The pillage of a town or place, even when taken by assault, is prohibited."

Among other clauses occur the following, the bearing of which on Belgium's present treatment is obvious:—

"Family honor and rights, individual lives and private property, as well as religious convictions and liberty, must be respected;

Private property cannot be confiscated;

Pillage is formally prohibited; if, besides the taxes, dues, and tolls imposed for the benefit of the State, the occupant levies other money-taxes in the occupied territory, this can only be for military necessities or the administration of such territory;

No general penalty, pecuniary or otherwise, can be inflicted on the population on account of the acts of individuals for which it cannot be regarded as collectively responsible;

Neither requisitions in kind nor services can be demanded from communes or inhabitants, except for necessities of the army of occupation;

Contributions in kind shall, as far as possible, be paid for in ready money;

All seizure of, and destruction, or intentional damage done to religious, charitable, and educational institutions, to historical monuments, works of art or science, is prohibited and should be made the subject of proceedings."

It is difficult to find a single one of these regulations which the German army in Belgium has not violated. The occupation of any place is systematically accompanied and followed by acts of violence towards the civil population. In addition, from several places the male population has been sent to Germany to be forced to work at the harvest as in the old days of slavery.

Few of the customs of war have undergone greater changes than those relating to the treatment of prisoners. In olden days captives were either killed or enslaved, imprisoned or held for ransom, and even during the wars of the 19th century were often exposed to cruelty, and unnecessary suffering and made to pass through the profoundest indignities. Indeed it was no uncommon thing for a wounded man to commit suicide rather than be taken prisoner. Both the Hague Convention and the Geneva Convention contain articles relating to the laws regarding prisoners of war. The object of the internment is solely to prevent prisoners participating further in the war. Anything therefore that may seem necessary to secure this end may be done, but nothing more, and unnecessary limitations are forbidden. The Government into whose hands prisoners have fallen is charged with their maintenance and the rooms they occupy must be healthy, clean, and as decent as possible.

It is interesting to note that as a prisoner is justified in making an attempt to escape, one who is frustrated in his attempt is liable to no penalty whatever on this account, provided he was not on parole at the time. When prisoners of war are set at liberty on parole, they are bound on their personal honor, to scrupulously fulfil the engagements they may have contracted. The form of parole should state definitely the conditions on which the prisoner is released.

Finally a commander may not put his prisoners to death because their presence retards his movements or diminishes his means of resistance by necessitating a large guard or because it appears certain they will regain the liberty through an impending success of their army. The last authenticated case of the killing of prisoners in cold blood occured in 1799 at Jaffa, where, 3,653 Arabs were shot down or bayoneted on the sea shore by order of Napoleon. It is doubtful whether now-a-days such necessity can ever rise, but it is worth noting that the German "Krugebrauch" of 1902 says:—

"Prisoners can be killed in case of extreme necessity when other means of security are not available and the presence of the prisoners is a danger to one's own existence..............Exigencies of war and the safety of the state come first and not the consideration that prisoners of war must at any cost remain unmolested."

The Geneva Conventions of 1864 and 1906 deal chiefly with the care of wounded and the sick, irrespective of nationality. Medical personnel must as far as military exigencies permit, be left in charge of sick and wounded and when they are captured by the enemy they are to continue their duty under his directions. It has been repeatedly reported that the Germans are in the habit of leaving behind them their sick and wounded so as to free themselves from encumbrances and to hamper the Allies.

Sick and wounded who fall into the enemy's hands are prisoners of war and under the Convention are not entitled to any privileges different from those of unwounded and healthy prisoners beyond that of proper medical attendance.

The battlefield must be searched for wounded, and nominal rolls of all the enemy's wounded

who have been received into any medical formation, must be forwarded to the Bureau of prisoners together with any identification marks or papers taken from the dead. It will have been noted that this Bureau of Prisoners has been arranged for between Germany and the Allies during the last week. The personnel engaged exclusively in the collection, transfer, and treatment of the wounded and sick and the Chaplains attached to the army shall be respected and protected under all circumstances, and shall not be held as prisoners of war.

The Red Cross Flag, chosen as a compliment to Switzerland and formed by reversing the Federal colours,—hoisted along with the national flag of the belligerent is the distinctive emblem of the medical services of armies, and not, as is generally supposed, of voluntary aid societies. The latter are only entitled to the sign when they are authorised by the State to render assistance to the regular army medical service.

On several occasions the Germans have been reported to have fired on buildings flying the Red Cross and they have also been charged with killing a considerable number of wounded by firing point blank into their faces. An authenticated rumour also states that they have killed the wounded in hospitals and set fire to hospital buildings while they have also made use of Red Cross waggons to bring up their artillery and machine guns for use against the Allies.

Under the Hague Convention of 1907 humane restrictions were also placed on naval warfare.

Submarine mines have played a great part and are probably destined to play a great part in the naval warfare of the North Sea. It is forbidden under article 1 of the 8th Convention ;

(1) to lay unanchored automatic contact mines unless they be so constructed as to become harmless one hour at most after the person who laid them has ceased to control them.

(2) to lay anchored automatic contact mines which do not become harmless as soon as they have broken loose from their movings.

(3) to use torpedoes which do not become harmless when they have missed their mark.

It is well known that the Germans sowed the North Sea with unanchored mines immediately war broke out, and not only have a couple of British Cruisers been destroyed by these mines but a very considerable number of Norwegian and Danish merchantmen and also a Russian emigrant ship have been blown up by coming in contact with these infernal machines. The German mines certainly do not become harmless one hour after the person who laid them has ceased to control them, and it is interesting to note that it was the German representatives at the Hague Convention who pressed the acceptance of this regulation.

Another matter that affects British and Indian coast towns deserves mention. Article 1 of the 9th Convention states that :—

The bombardment by naval forces of undefended ports, towns, villages or buildings is forbidden.

A place may not be bombarded solely on the ground that automatic submarine contact mines are anchored off the harbour.

Even were a bombardment to take place—which can happen if food be refused, or shots be fired—there are limits prescribed. These are stated in article (3) of the same convention :—

In bombardment by naval forces all necessary steps must be taken by the commander to spare as far as possible buildings dedicated to public worship, art, science, or charitable purposes, monuments, hospitals and places where sick and wounded are collected provided they are not used at the time for military purposes.

It has also been laid down under article 3 of the 11th Convention that.

Vessels employed exclusively in coast fisheries or small boats employed in local trade together with their appliances, rigging, tackle and cargo, are exempt from capture.

This provision gives special protection to fishing fleets and it will be remembered that one of the first "exploits" of the German navy was the sinking of fifteen British trawlers off the Dogger Bank, in the early days of the war. All these conventions have been signed by Germany as well as by the Allies. How many of them has she observed ?

The status of property at seas is a question of the utmost importance when we remember the immense tonnage of British shipping scattered all over the world. Bublic vessels *i. e.*, vessels belonging to the state, and private vessels of the enemy, are liable to capture in any port or sea except in territorial waters of a neutral, but Hospital ships engaged exclusively in carrying the sick and wounded are exempt from capture unless they perform some hostile act. Hospital ships are not permitted to carry wireless installations.

The only regulation which throws any light on the transaction which transferred the "Goeben" and "Breslau" to the Turkish Government is Article 56 of the Declaration of London of 1909 which states that "the transfer of an enemy vessel to a neutral flag effected after the opening of hostilities, is void unless it is proved that such transfer was not made in order to evade the consequences which the enemy character of the vessel would involve." There would seem to be little doubt that the transfer of these two warships was

made in order to avoid their being captured by the Mediterranean Fleet.

The position of submarine telegraphic cables has in recent years become of importance as they are usually of great value in carrying on the operations of war. Submarine cables used for war purposes are generally liable to interruption on the high seas but Art. 55 of the 1907, Hague Convention lays down that "submarine cables connecting an occupied territory with a neutral territory shall not be seized or destroyed unless in the case of absolute necessity. Wireless telegraphy was also considered at the Hague Convention of 1907, and under Art. 3 (a) belligerents are forbidden to erect or use on the territory of a neutral power a wireless telegraphy station for the purpose of communicating with belligerent forces on land or sea.

Presumably it was under this Article that the American Government took steps to close down the wireless station at Boston which the Germans were using during the first week of hostilities.

In connection with the question of armistice and truce the improper use of a flag of truce and of flags of surrender is forbidden, and the flag must not be used merely to obtain time to effect retreat or obtain reinforcement. A surrender must not be feigned in order to take the enemy at a disadvantage when he advances to secure his prisoners. This ruse has already been made use of by the Germans on several occasions—notably at Mons where a British Cavalry Regiment had drawn rein to avoid riding down German infantry who had ostensibly surrendered.

The employment of a national flag or uniform of the enemy for purposes of ruse is not forbidden but their employment during a combat is forbidden. The question whether the uniform of an enemy may be worn and his flag displayed for the purpose of effecting approach or retirement is still undecided. Belligerent forces have sometimes occasion to suspend active operations within the whole or part of the region or theatre of war. This is arranged most frequently in order to bury the dead or to collect and succour the wounded or sometimes to exchange prisoners or to permit conferences. The duration of the armistice is usually for a short definite period and the belligerent parties may only resume operations after notifying the enemy that hostilities are to be recommenced. During an armistice the belligerent forces must cease fire and must cease offensive operations of all kinds; but troops may be trained, new forces recruited, reinforcements, supplies and ammunition brought up to the lines and troops shifted from one position to another. Generally speaking acts which the enemy would not have been in a position to hinder even in the absence of a truce are not necessarily interrupted by the agreement.

British Red Cross and Ambulance Societies

BY MAJOR C. A. F. HINGSTON AND MR. A. L. PINTO.

THE immortal Florence Nightingale the subject of a beautiful poem by Longfellow, "Santa Filomena" was the unconscious instigator of the world-wide movement, the formation of Red Cross Societies. Florence Nightingale was the younger daughter of Edward Nightingale of Embly Park Hamshire; born 15th of May 1820 at Florence. Her childhood was spent in England. Early in life her great delight was to bandage dolls and wounded animals which she came across. When she grew up she was presented at Court and during her first season in town she frequently visited hospitals examining carefully into the management and working of the larger institutions which then existed. She then toured the continent and visited the large hospitals in Paris and Berlin. Having studied carefully for six months the working of a large continental institution and thoroughly mastering every detail she herself then went through a course of training. Returning to England she devoted herself to nursing the sick. In 1854 the sick and wounded in the Crimea were dying in hundreds. No preparations to carry out first aid to the wounded existed in those days. In fact there was an absence of any organisation to deal with the sick and dying. England realising that something must be done sought Parliament to appoint a Royal Commission to enquire into the deplorable condition of affairs in the Crimea. The Commission was appointed, funds allotted and the Secretary of War gladly accepted Florence Nightingale's offer to go to the Crimea with a staff of nurses. This gallant band arrived at Scutari in time to nurse the wounded from the Battle of Balaklava and Inkerman. The wounded

MISS FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.

Attending to the Sick and Wounded.

AN AMERICAN NEUTRAL SHIP THAT CARRIES AID IMPARTIALLY TO ALL THE COMBATANTS.

From the Literary Digest

QUEEN ALEXANDRA
Who is greatly interesting herself in the Red Cross movement.

QUEEN OF THE BELGIANS
Attending to the sick and the wounded among the Belgian Soldiers,

GROUP OF ENGLISH NURSES.

in their hundreds were brought to her. The band of nurses worked hard under their skilled leader, Florence Ninghtingale who was found here, there and everywhere. At night with lamp in hand she would wander amongst the patients heartening the sufferers by her presence and sympathy; soon she had thousands of patients under her charge. She was then called upon to superintend the general management of all hospitals in the Bhosphorus and under her skilful management and care hundreds recovered. This great undertaking completely knocked up the gallant band of nurses, but they worked on until Turkey was evacuated by the English in July 1856 when Florence Nightingale returned to England, to turn her attention to the question of army sanitary reform and army hospitals, the arrangement and control of ambulance work.

It will therefore be seen that efforts began to be made for affording regular medical aid to the wounded in war from the middle of the 19th century. But it was left to the enterprise of a Swiss philanthropist to place the movement on a sound footing. During the campaign of 1859 M. Henri Dunart, a Swiss country gentleman, witnessed the terrible carnage at the Battle of Magenta, which left 10,000 Austrians and 4,000 French and Piedmontese dead and wounded on the field and at that of Solferino where 38,000 lay dead and dying. His experiences are recorded in a pamphlet called "Un Souvenir de Solferino" which aroused a considerable amount of public interest. This gentleman was much impressed with the necessity for the organisation of Voluntary Medical Relief Societies for the aid of the Army Medical Services in order that adequate relief may be afforded to the wounded in war. He enlisted the sympathies of the Swiss and French Governments who called together the preliminary Conference of 1863. This was followed by the Geneva Conference of 1864 which framed rules for the neutralisation of persons and appliances devoted to the relief of the sick and wounded in war. At the Conference in 1863 M. Dunant succeeded in impressing upon the Conference the necessity for having independent groups of voluntary workers organised for succouring wounded on the battlefield, in other words, the formation of Red Cross Society. When the delegates met in 1864 to draw up the Geneva Convention it was made clear to them that certain Powers had only consented to take part in the negotiations on the understanding that the Confesence would have nothing to do with voluntary aid detachments but was only to draw up an agreement by which the regular organised medical services of armies would be able to carry on their work under the most favourable conditions. It will thus be seen that the Geneva Convention of 1864 did not recognise the Red Cross Societies. In spite of this, however, Red Cross Societies sprung into existence throughout Europe. France and Prussia in 1864, Russia in 1867, Great Britain in 1870, all formed societies. The Society in Great Britain was called "The National Society for aid to the sick and wounded in war." Lord Wantage V. C. was the prime founder of this Society in England. Florence Nightingale and M. Dunant were the prime founders of the Red Cross Movement in Europe. In 1906 the new Geneva Convention recognised Red Cross Societies, so that for 42 years the Red Cross was not recognised. Up to 1905 the National Aid Society had expended thousands of pounds in assisting the sick and wounded in European and African campaigns. In 1899 the Foreign Office notified that the Central British Red Cross Council was the only one authorised to deal with Red Cross matter throughout the Empire.

On July 17th 1905, under the presidency of Her Majesty Queen Alexandra the Red Cross Society as it exists now was inaugurated at a meeting held at Buckingham Palace. The objects of the Society were clearly explained in Her Majesty's brief speech which we now quote: "It has been on my mind ever since the South African war, when I became President, to try to re-organise the Red Cross Society on a more practical and sound basis. It affords me, therefore, the greatest satisfaction to learn that the Red Cross Council has consented to join hands with the National Aid Society founded by that distinguished soldier, the late Lord Wantage under one title, the British Red Cross Society. I therefore propose that the new organisation should be based upon membership and association, and the members and associates of the Society should be recruited from all classes throughout the Empire."

"The Society shall be entirely voluntary, and while in touch with the War Office and Admiralty the Society shall be organised and act wholly independently of those departments in times of peace, but naturally in time of war it must be under naval and military control.

"I therefore appeal to all women of the Empire to assist me in carrying out this great scheme, which is essentially a woman's work, and which is the one and only way in which we can assist our

brave and gallant army and navy to perform their arduous duties in time of war."

The objects of the Society are as follows :—

(1) to furnish aid to the sick and wounded in times of war, such aid necessarily being supplementary to that furnished by the Medical Department of the Navy and Army.

(2) to assist the medical services in personnel or kind.

(3) to carry out the views of the Geneva Convention and secure the neutrality of nurses, hospitals, etc.

(4) to relieve suffering occasioned by pestilence, floods, fire and other calamities.

In 1878 the British Ambulance organization of St. John of Jerusalem was founded. Its object was to render first aid to persons injured in accidents on the road, railway or in any of the occupations of civilized life. As a result of the initiative taken by this Society, Ambulance Corps have been formed in most large towns of the United Kingdom, and police, railway servants and workmen have been instructed how to render first aid pending the arrival of the doctor. This samaritan work has been further developed and extended to most parts of the British Empire, notably Canada, Australia and India and many lives are annually saved by the knowledge diffused by this Association as to how to stop bleeding, resuscitate the apparently drowned, etc. In the South African War this Association provided a most valuable reserve for the Royal Army Medical Corps in dealing with the enormous numbers of the sick and wounded who came upon their hands. Up to June 1912 the Red Cross Society had in England, Scotland and Wales nearly 1,500 detachments with the total membership of 44,000.

The British Red Cross Society on the outbreak of hostilities in the Balkans appealed for subscriptions which were generously made. The Governments of all the Belligerents gratefully accepted assistance from the Red Cross Society. Red Cross Units, were formed each consisting of 3 medical officers, 3 dressers (4th or 5th year students) 6 nursing orderlies, (one a sergeant) 5 general duty orderlies, 1 cook—total 18.

The Society sent 34 medical officers, 35 dressers, one X-Ray Operator, 9 sergeants, 2 clerks, 5 cooks, 49 nursing orderlies, 69 orderlies (general duty) 6 trained female nurses, 3 Directors of Units,—total 213.

During the present war, the first British Red Cross detachment started for Belgium on August 16th. It was sent at the request of the Belgian Government, for general service with the allied troops and consisted of 10 Surgeons, 10 dressers and 20 nurses. The rates of payment are :—Surgeons £ 1 a day with uniform and rations; dressers £ 2 a week with outfit, uniform and rations; and nurses £2 and 2s a week with uniform, rations etc., and an allowance for outfit.

The British Red Cross Society will continue to send out parties of forty constituted as above unless otherwise advised.

Queen Amelia of Portugal is acting as registering and checking clerk in the Nursing Department of the Society.

The Society has a very complete and detailed register of beds available in hospitals or convalescent homes and in private houses and non-medical institutions. The number of beds on the register is about 50,000. When the war office needs beds in any particular area, the Society will have all the particulars ready.

A register of Motor Ambulances, touring motor cars to be transformed into Ambulances and Tractors for fitted carts is being compiled. When the war office wants such help in any district, full and detailed information can at once be supplied.

A Stores department has also been established and a pamphlet has been issued giving full information as to the various articles of clothing that would be useful for the sick and wounded at the front.

4,000 men of the Saint John Ambulance Brigade have been mobilized as hospital orderlies with the navy and army; several thousands more are held in reserve. Surgeons and a large number of fully certified hospital nurses have been despatched by the Saint John Ambulance Association to Belgium at the request of the Belgium Red Cross Society.

The League of Mercy which aids hospitals in peace time has decided to give generous support to these institutions at the present moment.

In India two hospital ships are being equipped for despatch to the seat of war, one from northern India and another from Madras. The St. John Ambulance Association in India is forming Ladies' Committees all over the country to collect gifts of articles likely to be of use to the sick and wounded in the war. We in India are therefore not behind hand in our efforts to ameliorate the condition of the sick and wounded at the seat of war.

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* References :—The White Book of the Saint John Ambulance Association, the Encyclopedia Britannica, The Century Encyclopedia, Murray's Dictionary, the Indian Ambulance Gazette, the British Medical Journal, the Journal of Royal Army Medical Corps.

FIELD AND BASE HOSPITALS

BY

MAJOR R. BRYSON, F. R. C. S. E., I. M. S.

RECENT events have proved to the world that the claim of the British Army to be the finest in existence, is no idle boast but an actual fact. It is small but it is good! Its organisation is just about as perfect as it can be! This is not only its own opinion of itself, it is the verdict of those who have fought alongside of it. The fighting man is its unit. All is so managed that he can concentrate his whole attention on his own profession. He need not worry about his clothing. That is in the hands of a special department. He need not worry about his food, that is arranged for by the Army Service Corps. He is travelling from one end of the world to the other at the present moment without even purchasing a ticket on a railway or securing a berth on a steamer. All this is done for him. Not only is he transported himself from the Antipodes and a few other places between to the seat of fighting but his garments, his food and all that he needs is likewise conveyed over land and over sea. The preparedness of the various departments to meet his need was amply demonstrated when a few weeks ago an Expeditionary Force was sent from England to France without a hitch at any stage of the proceedings. So far as physical fitness is concerned the soldier, be he officer or man, is free from blemish to start with. The recruit may have more than satisfied the requirement of the sergeant but he *must* be passed by a medical officer and the standard laid down for the latter is high. We have all read of the young giant who to the blank astonishment of all and himself, most of all, was rejected because he had not a sound tooth in his head. His plea that he had not got to bite the enemy was we know unsound, because his ability to tackle the foe depended largely on his general health, which was very largely a matter of digestion, which again depend on his having sound teeth.

Experience teaches! Our nation excels in this particular! To put a perfectly sound man in the fighting line and within possibility, to provide him with just what he requires, when he requires it, is good business. But it is not all. In endeavouring to disable others, he may be disabled himself. Worse still. He may become the victim of disease. Field service conditions cannot be regulated and controlled. He cannot always be adequately protected from pouring rain in the fighting line, sanitary arrangements cannot be attended to in the trenches, in which he protects himself from the fire of the enemy, in many cases. In the South African War far more men were lost from enteric than from the efforts of our opponents to destroy them. In any case wounds are liable to become septic and to kill the soldier from the resulting complications. It is obvious therefore that if it is a great matter to place a healthy able warrior at the front it is still greater to keep him there. But it has taken time to learn the lesson. However in this matter there is a great gulf between what was and what is. If it is incredible and hard to understand that there was a time not so long ago when no attention was paid to the wounded it will probably be surprising to many to know that a base hospital in the present day is practically as well equipped as the best of big hospitals in a great city.

One might expect that medical service would begin and end with the provision of hospitals for treating sick and wounded. This was so twenty years ago. But of more recent years we have gone a step further. It is now recognized and regulations are very clear on the subject that officers in charge of operations will, in making their dispositions, seek and follow, as far as circumstances will permit, the advice of the Medical Department as to the suitability of occupying, or at any rate, remaining in certain areas. It is very easy to see how difficulties are likely to rise under these circumstances. There is no question that this matter was very well worked out, demonstrated to us by the Japanese in the China War of 1900. With them the colonel of a regiment always had his medical officer at his elbow, and the latter accompanied the reconnaisance party which went ahead to select campaign grounds. The source of the water supply and the water, were examined as a matter of routine. It might be necessary to seize a certain position but if there was an alternative which was better from a medical point it was chosen in preference and in any case if this were impossible extra precautions

were taken and the site was evacuated at the first opportunity. Of recent years certain officers have been selected for special training as sanitary experts and are encouraged by special allowances to study this important subject.

The actual working of the Medical Service in the field will probably be best understood by following a wounded man from the front to Home Sweet Home.

He will in every single case whatever his rank, whatever the arm he belongs to, be provided with two most essential articles. One is an aluminium identity disk on which is stamped his name, his corps and his religion. The other is a packet containing the requisites for applying, at the time of infliction, the dressings which will protect a wound from septic infection.

On the eve of a great battle the Commanding Officer, details stretcher bearers, two for a battery or company of infantry, four to each squadron of cavalry and places them with their stretchers at the disposal of their medical officer of the unit. This medical Officer is, in the case of British Troops a Major or a Captain of the R. A. M. C. of more than five year's service, in the case of Indian troops the regimental or Indian Medical Service Officer. A ward orderly accompanies each Medical Officer carrying a field medical companion and a water bottle. One of the stretcher bearers carries a field surgical haversack. The duties of this section end with treating the wounded after conveying them to the dressing stations. They must never on any account lose touch with their own unit during an action.

The medical officer decides whether a man can continue in the fighting line after the first field dressing has been applied or whether it is necessary to send him to the dressing station. The badly injured present no difficulty but the usual experience both in the case of the British and the Indian Army is that it is often hard to convince a man that he "must" retire and usually it is necessary to assure him that "won't be for long." The dressing stations are placed as near the fighting line as is considered reasonably safe and they move about with it. If buildings are available they are utilized, if not tents are pitched. A good water supply often decides their location. The attention that can be paid to the wounded coming in on their stretchers to the dressing station can only be temporary as a rule. Emergencies such as hamorrage which can be stopped, a broken bone which can be placed in a safe position, or trivial injuries which can be treated on the spot are here treated. Anything requiring further attention must be sent on, after temporary dressings have been applied, to the field hospital. If badly injured the patient is conveyed on the stretcher which he was brought in on, but most will be able to make use of the ambulance vehicles which are collected here. This field hospital is the next station. It is equipped for a hundred beds in four sections, each independent if necessary to separate them of 25 each, and their personnel consists of four officers, two the rank of Major or Lt. Col. and two of junior rank. One should be a specialist in advanced surgery. For British troops they will be R. A. M. C., for Indian I. M. S

In these practically anything can be done in the surgical line. They are located in houses or if these are not available in tents. Bedding is provided, and an X-ray apparatus for use in the field forms part of its equipment.

They are usually placed behind the centre of the force they belong to. When an action is imminent they march behind the ammunition column, otherwise they are moved about according to the plans of the Commanding Officer. When fighting is going on they must send on their sick to the lines of communication and be prepared to receive fresh cases from the dressing stations.

Between these mobile field hospitals and the base hospitals are the Field hospitals on the lines of communication.

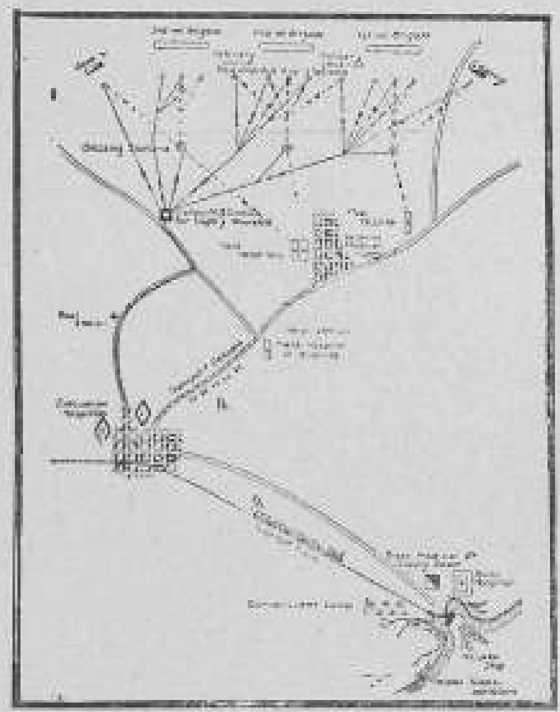
The number of these will of course depend on the distance between the base and the fighting line. They resemble in detail the Field hospital already referred to but their main function is to receive the sick and pass them on from one to the other till they reach the Base hospital. They will probably therefore be an easy day's march from each other. During active operations they are incessantly at work. As each convoy is received it has to be put to bed, fed, and dressings attended to. Occasionally a case is unfit to go farther and may have to be detained till fit to move on or again it may be the last resting place of a badly injured man. The bulk of the inmates will however move on and everything must be at once put in readiness for the next convoy.

From the last of the Field hospitals on the lines of communication our wounded soldier is conveyed to the big Base hospital. Here he comes to an anchor and can convalesce, further operation may be necessary, or he may require careful nursing and so on.

This is in brief outline the general idea of medical relief. It conveys very imperfectly the

A WOUNDED INDIAN IN FRANCE.

A wounded Indian soldier being placed in a motor ambulance by members of the British Red Cross Brigade.



FROM FIGHTING LINE TO HOSPITAL.

This map shows lines for the return of the wounded from the field. It indicates how a division—15,000 to 20,000 men—would deal with its wounded in action.

Popular Science Siftings.

immense amount of organisation and management required to carry it out. Mobilization must be capable of speedy accomplishment. To this end every detail must be worked out beforehand. The unit of the Hospital equipment is a section of 25 beds. Four such as we have seen make a field hospital. Each General Hospital consists of 500 beds capable of division into five units of 100 beds, each of which is complete in itself.

To begin with whatever the size of an army the whole of the equipment for the hospital service, in proportion, is always kept ready at the Medical Stores. From a tent to a safety pin everything is in its place in the quantity laid down by regulations. Everything is carefully labelled and numbered and a careful watch is kept on articles liable to deteriorate which are constantly renewed and kept up to standard requirement.

This is a comparatively simple matter in the case of stores and boxes and tents. The personnel is a very different matter. It stands to reason that a vastly larger number of staff will be required in time of war. It would cost an enormous sum to keep a small army of men doing nothing so as to be ready to open out and put in working order the various hospital units mentioned. It must be remembered that at any rate the superior staff must be trained and an enemy is not going to give you six months or a year's notice to educate them for their special duties. This explains in the case of the Indian Medical Service what is meant by a certain proportion of their members forming a reserve in case of the outbreak of hostilities. It is essentially and primarily a military service! The larger number of its members are attached to the various units in times of peace. A regiment of infantry, a battery of artillery, a cavalry regiment, each has its medical officer who looks after the sick of his unit and attends to the illnesses they are liable to under the conditions of life in a quiet cantonment. On service his men will return a vastly increased number of sick because in addition to the ordinary ills that human flesh is heir to they will suffer from the diseases incident to camp life and to the injuries of battle. Also, to be of much use they must expect in most cases to be frequently on the move and the medical officer must move about with them. He must therefore hand over his sick and wounded to the field and base hospitals. The body of additional hands required for these must be professionally efficient and at the same time accustomed to service discipline and army regulations. This difficulty is solved by employing the required reserve in various so called civil billets. A roster is maintained throughout the year of I. M. S. men in civil employ. Each man is on what is known as a call and although everything is strictly confidential he knows by the time the men on the call below him have been requisitioned, that his turn is approaching and within twenty-four hours of receipt of orders he is on his way to join the unit he is posted to. The Hospitals scattered all over India and the medical schools attached to them are a monument to the achievement of this reserve of officers the benefit of which no one questions. The supreme wisdom of such a scheme is obvious in a crisis like the present. Owing to the frequency of the occasions on which the services of the I.M.S. have been requisitioned for many years past, there are few of them who have not seen actual service. They speak the language of their wounded men, they know their customs, understand their caste distinctions, and when they receive their orders they know exactly what the nature of their duties will be, what equipment and staff will be at their disposal, and above all they know what the discipline of a soldier means. When Captain A, I.M.S. with B section of No. 42 Field Hospital is ordered by the staff to station X, the staff know that when a convoy of sick reaches that point Captain A, I.M.S. will be there and that he will know exactly what to do with each man in that convoy. However clever as a Surgeon a Civilian from Europe might be it would be impossible for him to understand that a Hindu must have his food cooked in a special set of cooking utensils by a special man, that in Box No. 1 heavy, he will find the ink he requires, but that he will have to hunt in Box No. 6 heavy for a mosquito net. No doubt he would learn "in time." So far we have given the skeleton outline of medical arrangement, under normal conditions. To be efficient the system must be elastic and adaptable. Arrangement must provide for very much more than what we have described. To begin with supplies can only last a certain time. Depots must therefore be established for replenishing stores. To maintain any sort of regularity and efficiency of service, indents must be made on special forms. Nothing must be left to chance, so far as that element can be eliminated. Even when things are going well the unexpected happens. The writer can quote many instances of this from personal experience. On one occasion evacuating a camp on the lines of communication, everything had been arranged with the greatest care and at a certain hour about 5 a.m. the head of the procession of animals transporting the

field hospital was ready to take its place. Camels were provided. No straggling allowed. It would never have done for the Hospital to have got mixed up with the unit in front or that behind. A lively time ensued when one of his camels without rhyme or reason deliberately sat down every half mile and had to be coaxed or cajoled into moving on again. On another occasion it was the pannier mules who insisted on having a violent altercation at every single opportunity ending in the breaking of some bottles and the spilling of their contents. On yet another occasion moving with a bearer company in China an excited staff officer rode up and demanded to know where the hospital escort was. The Adjutant had omitted to provide it!! No excuse. The hospital company ought to have known better than to move without it.

A run on one particular article is another bug-bear—an average of each must be provided, otherwise the bulk of supply would render the unit unwieldy.

One of the worst trials and one of which the writer was a victim more than once is landing an insane amongst the sick. One was an officer with six bullet marks in his helmet and clothing though he had sustained no injury himself. It was his first experience and had been too much for his nervous system. Nothing would induce him to leave the cover of the hospital tent. Curiously enough within six weeks he passed back again through our station on his way up to the front "to get some of his own back" as he expressed it. Another was a Gurkha Sepoy with a bullet wound on the scalp. The projectile had passed right through his skull. There was little to be seen except the wounds of exit and entry and his one idea was that his Adjutant had a down on him and wanted to get rid of him. Though this was very far from being true he delayed the convoy a precious fifteen minutes arguing the point. The Campaign in Europe already gives a history of more than one retreat. Reverses, retreats, attacks on lines of communication are the essence of modern warfare. The best laid plans must need revision in such cases. No preparation can adequately meet them. At least there is some attempt to observe Red Cross regulations and Geneva Convention Rules. The medical staff is non-combatant. It is supposed to be safe from actual attack. In the Tirah Campaign and in China our enemy knew nothing about such customs. In fact in China medical officers were warned that the rough soldiery had been instructed to pick off the doctors. The reasoning was excellent. They put disabled men back in the fighting line. Get rid of them! In the present war hospitals are indicated by certain flags and at night by certain lamps. The hospital staff wear a distinguishing badge which is supposed to render them immune to carry on their professional work—a sick or wounded man requires aid which must be given to him irrespective of his nationality, whether he be friend or foe. In case of a defeat the medical staff must remain on the battlefield even after their force has retired, to succour the injured. These are the methods of civilized warfare. Whatever others may do our soldiers may rest assured that Great Britain will carry them out to the letter.

THE HOSPITALSHIP "MADRAS."

The Hospitalship "*Madras*" left the Madras harbour at 10 A.M. on November 17th on her mission of mercy to the seat of war. The *Madras* is a perfect vessel so far as her present purpose is concerned, up to date in modern comfort and scientific equipment. Complete in every point that modern science demands and that civilization suggests, the *Madras* is bound to be of immense service in helping the sick and the wounded in the great war. The perfect condition of her contents bears testimony to the wisdom and generosity of the Madras public who have made her maiden voyage an assured success. Not less credit is due to Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Pentland who have evinced the keenest interest in the fitting out of the vessel. The night previous to the departure of the *Madras*, Their Excellencies the Governor and Lady Pentland entertained all those to whom the work of medical relief at the bases of operation was entrusted when His Excellency proposed the health of the *Madras* and associated with it the names of Col. Giffard and Captain Kilpatric. The *Madras* was given a happy send off in the morning. The Staff, both medical and surgical, has been most carefully selected. It includes Colonel G. G. Giffard, Major T. H. Symons, Major D. Gunpat Rai, Captain E. W. C. Bradfield, Captain H. Stott, all Officers of the I.M.S., and the Hon'ble Lieutenant T. M. Nair. The skill of Captain Kilpatric has been of much use in remodelling his vessel, and Commander W. B. Huddleston, R.I.M., has also given the [greatest possible assistance.

THE HOSPITALSHIP "MADRAS."
H. E. Lord Pentland, Governor of Madras and the Officers of the Ship.

MAJOR G. G. GIFFARD, C.S.I., I.M.S.

TURKEY AND THE WAR

BY PROF. E. W. GREEN

(Presidency College, Madras.)

ONE of the most interesting points in the political situation created by the outbreak of the German war is the attitude of neutral powers. The reasons for their attitude, the nature of the interests involved, the extent to which belligerents are affected and the ultimate effects of the war are points which are full of interest to the students of politics. Discussions of these questions lead in every case to the practical point, whether these countries will retain the power and will to preserve their neutrality. A great deal depends on the countries' geographical position. A country which is so situated as to have the power to influence the military action of any of the combatants or to act as a corridor for the passage of supplies for belligerents will be faced with many difficulties in the interpretation of the laws of neutrality and will be subjected to heavy pressure by interested powers. The position of Spain and Portugal is too remote from the centre of activities to give them a direct interest in the struggle. Apart from all other considerations, so long as the Anglo-French Navies hold the seas, those countries have more to gain than to lose by intervention. Of far greater interest is the attitude of Holland and the Scandinavian countries, of Italy and Switzerland, of the Balkan States, and, till a few weeks ago, Turkey. All these countries are in a position to influence directly the course of the war. From the commencement of hostilities the probability of their entry was widely discussed. They are all countries whose policy at the present moment is of vital importance to both groups of belligerents. Strategically they offer advantageous positions from which one party can attack the naval and military forces of the other; economically they provide inlets for the introduction of supplies to combatants. The countries fall into three groups, distinguished by the different values of their neutrality. The neutrality of Holland and Scandinavia, for instance, is of priceless value to Germany, chiefly on economic grounds. Hence the German Emperor expresses to Holland his admiration for the praiseworthy way in which she is upholding the difficult and dangerous rôle of a neutral. To England and her allies of the seas, it might be contended, Dutch and Scandinavian hostility would be more beneficial than their neutrality. Italy and Switzerland form a second group. The value of their neutrality is more debatable. Strategically they would be of immense assistance to either side. In this respect they stand midway between the North Sea neutrals and the Eastern Mediterranean group. It is more difficult to attach a precise value to the neutrality of the Balkan States owing to the complexity of Balkan interests, but there is one outstanding feature in the situation—they can control routes by which neutral commerce reach Russia and by which the bulk of Russian produce is carried to Europe. The situation in South Eastern Europe is, in fact, the converse of the position in the North West. There Dutch and Scandinavian neutrality best suited Germany's interests, in South Eastern Europe she is benefited most by alliances. Hence she has brought great pressure to bear upon Turkey who controls the entrance to the Black Sea and has persuaded her to discard the dull cloak of neutrality for the shining armour of a German alliance. This attitude of Germany to the principle of neutrality affords the comic relief in the tragedy. Dutch neutrality is a subject for fulsome admiration; Belgian for relentless hostility; Turkish for compulsory friendship. And there is every indication that German friendship is more calamitous than German hostility. For Belgium may hope to regain all that she has lost, but for Turkey there is the prospect of the partition of her remaining territories.

Germany has thus determined the attitude of two countries whose interest it was to remain neutral. In the prosecution of her political design German influence has been established in Belgium and Turkey, at Antwerp and Constantinople. The

situation has constantly arisen in the course of history. Time after time, a dominant military power has attempted to consolidate into an empire the countries which lie along one of the great trade-routes which connect Eastern and Western markets. Of this trade route Antwerp and Constantinople are the termini, and they are linked together by the systems of the Rhine and the Danube, and the Italian and Balkan Peninsulas or by the Adriatic and Ægean Seas. This is the land-route in contra-distinction to the sea-route with its termini at London and Suez, and the Atlantic and the Mediterranean Seas for its line of communications. From Suez and Constantinople the routes stretch out eastwards to India and China through the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean, and by land over Asia Minor and Persia. This was the Empire which it was Louis XIV's ambition to create and which Napoleon was on the point of establishing. It is the same goal towards which the Emperor William II is striving in the present war.

The fulfilment of this policy required German control of Holland and Belgium in the West, and in the East the development of a political system which would enable the Kaiser to exert his influence at Constantinople. The formation of the Triple Alliance of Austria, Germany and Italy was the beginning of the movement towards Turkey.—Germany's Drang nach Osten. The penetration of the Balkan barrier followed and gradually German influence became paramount in Roumania and Turkey. The design seemed complete in 1912. Turkish armies drilled and armed by Germany seemed to dominate the Balkans when two events occurred which changed the whole situation—the Turco-Italian War and the Balkan war of 1912. As the result of the first, Italy drew away from the Triple Alliance; in the second case Turkish influence disappeared from the Balkan Peninsula, while Roumania deserted the German for a Russian *entente*. The expansion of Servia had cut off the German powers from the direct route to the Ægean and Constantinople. The Balkans had again come into existence. Of the old system, Turkey alone was left, but crippled physically and financially, and cut off from direct communication with Germany. One of the main objects of Germany in the present war is to regain her control of the Balkans,—particularly the line through the Sandjak of Novi Bazar to Salonica and make good again her connection with Turkey.

Turkey therefore forms part of the political and economic system which it is Germany's ambition to create. Turkey is a necessary part of the German economic system, and her attitude at the present moment is the result of her inclusion in the system. She is to be subordinated to German interests until the moment for the occupation of Constantinople and Asia Minor has arrived. As far back as 1863 a German economist wrote: "I hope to live to see the day when the heirship of Turkey shall have fallen to Germany, and regiments of German soldiers or German workmen are stationed on the Bosphorus." The situation is remarkably similar to the position when France was the dominant military power in Europe. In the seventeenth century Louis XIV's influence was supreme at Constantinople and his policy was to make Turkey the instrument of his ambition until he could appear on the Danube at the head of French bayonets and lead a sort of crusade against Turkey which would establish French power in Constantinople and Asia Minor. Napoleon's object was similar. At one time in 1798 he attempted to make good his control of Syria and Asia Minor by direct hostilities against the Turks, but he was foiled by English sea power. Again in 1801 he made a definite agreement with Russia for the occupation of Asia Minor with a view to an invasion of India but the conclusion of the peace of Amiens compelled the postponement of the scheme. His oriental project was renewed in 1806. In that year French policy underwent a change. The French Ambassador, Sebastiani, was now instructed to form a Franco-Turco-Persian Alliance. In Europe the position had been prepared by compelling Austria to cede Dalmatia, thus providing a gateway to the Balkans through which French influence penetrated. Albania and Montenegro, for instance, came under French control. Turkey was then embroiled in a war with Russia in spite of British representations that she should preserve her neutrality. Then followed the bombardment of the Dardanelles by the English fleet, Russia being at that time the ally of England. In 1808 the peace of Tilsit brought Russia and France together and so the French attitude towards Turkey changed again. On this occasion a definite scheme of partition was proposed by France. France was to receive Albania, Thessaly, Epirus, the Morea, the Ægean Isles, Egypt and part of Asia Minor and Syria. Russia's share was Moldavia and Wallachia, *i.e.*, the modern kingdom of Roumania, and part of Bulgaria and of the

Southern coast of the Black Sea. She claimed Servia and Constantinople as well, but Napoleon insisted that Servia, Macedonia and the harbour of Salonica should go to Austria, while Constantinople was to be held by France with the territory stretching from Rodosto to Adrianople. As Napoleon wrote to his Ambassador at Constantinople: "The fundamental part of the question is always this—who shall have Constantinople?" But on this occasion, again, Western affairs saved Turkey from dismemberment, for Napoleon from this time was occupied with the Spanish rising and its profound consequences.

History, then, seems to establish this point—that Turkey from the day of her decline in the seventeenth century has been alternately the tool and victim of the chief military power in Europe. She has been employed to distract the attention of the forces engaged in opposing the ambitions of that power. In the seventeenth century she played this rôle in attacking Austria on the Danube. Since then Russia has been the obstructing power, and so, at the present moment, Turkey has been cajoled into fighting Germany's battles. Turkish territory has not been attacked nor her interests threatened. But she has been drawn into a war in the interests of a power whose policy requires the establishment of her influence in Constantinople and in the Asiatic dominions of Turkey.

The nature of Germany's interests in Asia are to be found in the project of the Bagdad Railway. In appearance it is an ordinary commercial enterprise in which the capital is found by a commercially progressive nation for the development of a country which has no industrial enterprise. But the project stands for much more than this. It amounts to the establishment of German control over Asia Minor and Mesopotamia to the Persian Gulf. The railway is the outward and visible sign of Germany's political and financial control of Turkey. Germany's intention is to establish colonies in the territories along the track of the railway. This has been publicly stated by General Von der Goltz, the organiser of the new-modelled Turkish army. Turkish finances are determined by the demands of the railway scheme; large sums have been ear-marked to remunerate German capitalists for their outlay, and are derived chiefly from increased customs duties. The enterprise, too, shapes Turkey's foreign relations. For the railway in German hands means competition with Russian and English trade, and Germany imposes a high tariff against Russian goods in Europe, and is England's severest commercial competitor. Thus the economic rivalry of these powers which has been a determining cause of the present European struggle is transferred with its accompanying political friction to Asia Minor. Already the coming event of the completed design has cast its shadow over the middle East. There has been a concentration of the rival interests in Persia, a country which is immediately affected by the railway scheme. Backed by Germany, Turkey has taken advantage of Russia's internal troubles to advance beyond her frontier and occupy important districts in Western Persia. Russia and England have long established commercial interests in Persia, and in the face of the threatened German advance into Mesopotamia they are bound to take measures for the maintenance of their interests. They know that if Turkey under German tutelage is established in Western Persia, high tariffs and discriminating rates would be employed to destroy competitive commerce and open for Germany the monopoly of an important market. And so, with the outbreak of hostilities with Turkey, a Russian force has invaded Armenia, a country whose position dominates the Mesopotamian region, and an expeditionary force has been sent from India to occupy the head of the Persian Gulf, the chief outlet for the trade of the Mesopotamian basin. The project has completely transformed Turkey's foreign relations. It has provoked Russian aggression and destroyed, temporarily at any rate, England's traditional friendship with the Porte. The policy is shaped, not in Turkey's interest, but for the benefit of the Power which controls the Bagdad Railway. Literally the iron has entered into the soul of Turkey.

The Bagdad Railway scheme has an important bearing on India's strategic and economic position. The scheme provides for a railway which is intended to connect the Bosphorus and the coast of Asia Minor with the Persian Gulf, and eventually, it has been suggested, with Karachi. The first German concession was obtained in 1888 for the construction of the Anatolia section to Konieh. Ten years later the Emperor William made his famous visit to Constantinople and laid the foundation of an eternal friendship with the Sultan, Abdul Hamid. The result was a concession for the construction of a railway from Konieh to the Persian Gulf. Since then conventions have been made for the completion of the scheme in three sections. The first

section from Koniah to Eregli was finished at the end of 1904. The second section runs from Eregli to El Helif. This section has immense engineering difficulties to overcome, and has not yet been completed East of Adana. The third section takes the line to Bagdad. The agreement for its construction together with the right to construct harbours at Alexandretta and Bussorah, was signed in 1911. This section of the line is also under construction and it is understood that the whole scheme will be completed by 1917. The last section runs from Bagdad to the Persian Gulf. Its completion will put at the disposal of a great military power a vital line of communication with India and the East, a line which follows the track of Alexander's march to the Indus. The enterprise most directly affects Indian interests, for with German influence established on the Euphrates and thereby exercising pressure on Persia and the Persian Gulf, India's political relations must be adjusted to meet the changed situation. English policy remains as it was laid down in 1902 by the Under Secretary for Foreign affairs in the English Parliament—"It is the intention of His Majesty's Government to maintain the *status quo* in the Persian Gulf, and its maintenance is incompatible with the occupation by any power of a port in those waters." The situation was stated by Lord Ellenborough far more incisively when he said, *à propos* of the German enterprise, "Let us have the Russians at Constantinople rather than a great Power on the Persian Gulf."

Enough has been said to show that Turkey's foreign relations, in particular her attitude in this war, have been determined by German ambitions. Nor does Turkish policy, it seems, meet with the support of the Sultan or the Turkish people.

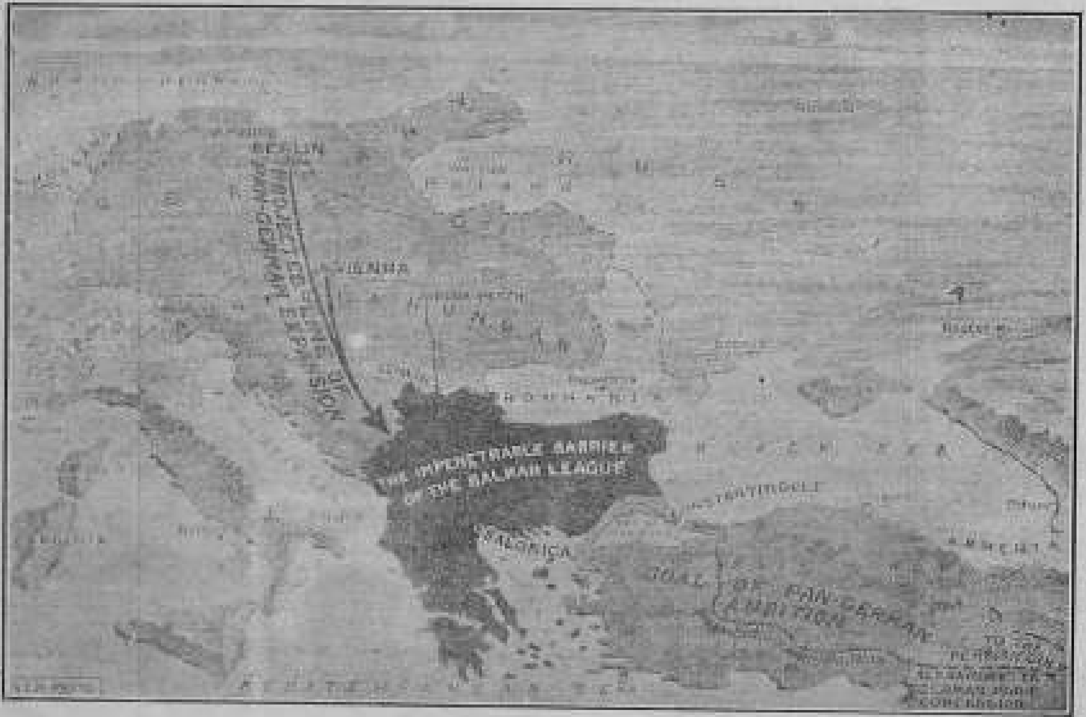
Political power is in the hands of the Committee of Union and Progress and the officers of the army. The Committee is an organised group of the party of the Young Turks directing every branch of the political life of Turkey. Through its powerful organisation it determines the choice of candidates for the Parliamentary elections. The majority of the members of Parliament and all the Cabinet Ministers are its nominees. Even the Sultan is a tool in its hands. When Hakki Pasha's Cabinet resigned in 1911, the Sultan was anxious to call upon the Liberal statesman, Kiamil Pasha, to form a new ministry. But the all-powerful Committee forced him to summon their nominee, Said Pasha and secured the continuation of their ascendancy. This Cabal, through the army and the Parliament, monopolises political power.

The events of 1908 and 1909 created the existing political situation. In 1908 the Turkish Revolution was carried out by the Young Turks acting from Salonica. The Sultan, Abdul Hamid, was forced to grant a constitution which provided Turkey with Parliamentary institutions. In 1909 the Sultan attempted a counter-revolution, but was deposed by the Macedonian army corps which marched from Salonica under its Commander, Shefket Pasha. The present Sultan, Mohammed V, the brother of Abdul Hamid, was placed on the throne, but from that moment the army, as the preserver of the constitution, has played an important part in Turkish Politics, and, for many years, Shefket Pasha was the uncrowned Sultan of Turkey.

The appearance of the army in the political arena gave a new aspect to the situation. It formed the most efficient branch of the Turkish service, and its officers were the only men in the country who had had administrative experience. The Young Turks were enthusiastic but entirely unexperienced, their acquaintance with politics being confined to a study of political science in the congenial atmospheres of Paris, Brussels and Geneva. The army had been organised by German officers and many of its own officers had lived in Germany and returned to Turkey, fervid admirers of German militarism. Shefket himself was an ardent Germanophil. Accordingly the restoration of the constitution by the army resulted in the restoration of German influence at Constantinople. The Revolution had altered the foreign relations of Turkey as well as the form of government. The foreign policy of Abdul Hamid had been pro-German. With his overthrow British influence became for a time supreme, for England sympathised with the constitutional aims of the Young Turks. But German influence returned with the successful march of Shefket Pasha, and the dominant section of the Young Turks, the Committee of Union and Progress, identified itself with the aggressive Germanophil, inclinations of the Army. This is the ill-starred combination which has misdirected Turkish policy for the last six years and left her passive in the hands of German capitalists. Instead of a wise consolidation of Turkish resources, it has provoked internal rebellion among the Sultan's most loyal subjects in Albania and Arabia, it has exposed the Empire to foreign

WHO WILL CONTROL THE DARDANELLES?

Review of Reviews.



DEATH KNELL OF GERMANY'S "DRANG NACH OSTEN."

The greatest result of the Balkan War—the ending of Germany's ambitions towards the East.

attack which has resulted in the loss of its European provinces, and it has sullied its hands with massacres as atrocious as any that disgraced the administration of Abdul Hamid.

There are many signs, however, that this policy is not accepted willingly by the Turkish nation. The people are still inarticulate in spite of the grant of a constitution, for, as long as the Committee can control the elections representative institutions are a farce. There are signs too of growing dissatisfaction with the aggressive militarism of the Committee and the officers. Year after year the reserves have been called from their agricultural occupations to suppress domestic revolt or meet a foreign attack. There is a party which represents their views, the party of Liberal Accord. This party adheres as firmly to the Revolution settlement as the Committee of Union and Progress, but it attacks its methods. It stands for a policy of peace abroad, conciliation and retrenchment at home. It is anxious to recognise nationalist rights in the Empire in opposition to the centralising policy of the Committee, and to renew the English connection in opposition to the Germanising influence of the army. Its leader is the aged Kiamil Pasha and it has the entire sympathy of the Sultan. But neither are strong enough to overthrow the Cabal. In 1912 indeed Kiamil did become Premier, inheriting all the domestic blunders and the Italian and Balkan Wars but he was driven from office by *a coup d' etat* in January 1913, when he attempted to negotiate a peace, and the new ministry was again composed of the nominees of the Committee and the army. This is the Cabinet which is in power now. Prince Said Halim Pasha is the Premier; Talaat Bey and Djavid Pasha are two of his better known colleagues, while the most powerful personality is the notorious Enver Bey. On the assassination of Shefket Pasha, Enver Bey succeeded to the position which he had occupied. Like Shefket he has been trained in Germany. In 1911 he was military attaché in Berlin and is now the chief upholder of the German connection and the exponent of an aggressive militarist policy.

During the last months, since the outbreak of the war, these two parties led by Enver Bey and Kiamil Pasha have confronted each other, the former demanding intervention in the war in open alliance with Germany; the latter insisting on the preservation of neutrality. The struggle has been a keen one. When Turkey declared her intention of adopting a policy of strict neutrality it was the voice of the Sultan that spoke, and it seemed that Kiamil had prevailed. At the same time there came disquieting news of the friendly reception of the fugitive German battleships and the rumour that the Sultan was being forced to declare for Germany by the threat of the bombardment of his palace. The intensity of the struggle can be imagined if we are to believe the Press telegram that Enver Bey had been fired at by one of the Princes in the council chamber. For the moment at any rate, the party of the Committee backed by German officers has prevailed, and Turkey is at War with the Triple Entente. Again Turkey has been embroiled in a war with Russia and again an English fleet has bombarded the Dardanelles. Again the question is agitating European chancelleries—who shall have Constantinople? Its destiny, now as ever, is in the hands of the power which commands the Seas. Turkey like Belgium, is a country which is exposed to the attack of a great military power, but that for which the countries are desired, their harbours of Antwerp and Constantinople, brings them under the influence of sea-power. Belgium, recognised the fact and put herself under the ægis of the Power which is supreme at Sea. Turkey has disregarded the fact and has entered upon a war with that Power. But so long as England commands the Seas, Constantinople is hers to give or withhold. It may be that an internal revolution in Turkey will cause a change of parties and enable England to preserve the territorial integrity of Turkey's Asiatic dominions. It may be that Turkish provocative policy will continue, and England will reluctantly acquiesce in the transfer of Constantinople to another State. Such a step is against her wishes and her interests and will be undertaken in no spirit of hostility with the Turkish race or religion, but for the destruction of German influence at Constantinople. The situation has been well summed up in an article in the *Times of India*. "A war with Russia is the wanton provocation of the power from which Turkey has most to fear; a war with France is a war against the only country which can restore Turkish finances; a war with Great Britain is a war with the only power with a sentimental and national interest in the preservation of a strong and independent Turkey."

The Indian Government and Turkish Hostilities

With reference to the raiding of Russian and French vessels by Turkish ships and other acts of hostility to the Allies with little pretext or provocation the following Press *Communiqué* was issued at Simla on October 30:—

The attitude adopted by the Turkish Government in regard to the German men-of-war, the *Goeben* and *Breslau*, aroused great misgivings in London, Paris and Petrograd. These ships were flying from the French and British fleets in the Mediterranean and took refuge in the Dardanelles, where, by the rules of International Law and under Turkish Treaties, they should either have been laid up by the Turkish Government, their crews not being repatriated until the close of the war, or made to leave for the open sea at the end of 24 hours.

Instead of this, the ships were allowed to remain in shelter and to exercise belligerent rights on a French ship, and then it was suddenly announced that they had been purchased by Turkey, who retained the German crews and dismissed the British Admiral from his exclusive command of the Turkish Fleet.

At the same time, the passage of the Dardanelles was sown with mines, and all British merchant vessels in those waters or coming through from the Black Sea were held up, first on the pretext that their cargoes were wanted for troops whom Turkey was mobilising, and then that the presence of mines rendered it unsafe for vessels to proceed. This was not only a totally unjustifiable interference on the part of a neutral State with the trade of Great Britain, involving both shippers and merchants in heavy loss, but it paralysed the movements of all British shipping in the Black Sea, amounting at the time to 60 or 70 vessels, since, not only was it impossible to get through into the Mediterranean, but there was nothing to prevent the *Goeben* and *Breslau* from passing into the Black Sea and destroying all the shipping collected there. The Dardanelles have now been closed, in defiance of International Treaties.

Another reason for grave disquietude has been the unfriendly treatment by responsible Turkish officials in Baghdad and Mesopotamia of British subjects and the open incitement of the population by Turkish official circles against Great Britain and her allies.

Notwithstanding all this provocation, His Majesty's Government intimated that if Turkish were substituted for German crews on the *Goeben* and *Breslau*, if British merchant shipping were not impeded, and if Turkey would honourably carry out the duties of a neutral State, not only would all these irregularities and hostile acts be overlooked, but that a solemn and written guarantee would be given that Great Britain would scrupulously respect the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire. Furthermore, assurances were given that, at the conclusion of peace, Great Britain would see that no conditions were laid down which would impair that independence and integrity, and that economic conditions of a character favourable to Turkey would be obtained.

In spite of these assurances, the attitude of Turkey towards Great Britain became increasingly provocative.

Evidence continued to reach His Majesty's Government of military preparations in Syria, which could have had no other purpose than to facilitate an attack on Egypt, and of active propaganda carried on by Turkish and German agents among the Bedouin Arabs in the regions adjoining the Egyptian frontier. The Mosul and Damascus Army Corps have, since their mobilisation, been constantly sending troops south, preparatory for an invasion of Egypt and the Suez Canal, from Akaba and Gaza. A large body of Bedouin Arabs have been called out and armed to assist in this venture. Transport has been collected and roads have been prepared up to the frontier of Egypt. Mines have been despatched, to be laid in the Gulf of Akaba, to protect the force from naval attack, and the notorious Sheikh Aziz Shawish, who has been so well known as a fire-brand in raising Muslim feeling against Christians, has published and disseminated through Syria, and probably India, inflammatory documents urging Mahomedans to fight against Great Britain.

RUSSIA & TURKESTAN
12,150,000
TURKEY
16,000,000
CHINA AND
CHINESE TURKESTAN
30,000,000
AFGHANISTAN
5,000,000
INDIA
63,000,000
HONG KONG
EGYPT
10,367,000
ARABIA
2,000,000
(Allegiance to Turkey)
SUDAN
1,500,000
EAST
AFRICA
1,000,000
INDIAN OCEAN
MADAGASCAR
1,500,000
Mauritius
AUSTRALIA
20,500
Note: British Territory & Regions of control
is either shown BLACK or UNDERLINED
Mohammedans in the
BRITISH EMPIRE
96,237,000
Mohammedans in
TURKISH EMPIRE
18,000,000
Mohammedans in
FRENCH EMPIRE
12,800,500

PROFESSIONAL ETIQUETTE.

SULTAN OF Turkey: "Hallo! Another doctor! Hadn't you better hold a consultation?

GERMAN SURGEON: "Well, to tell the truth, I hadn't thought of consulting these other gentlemen. I rather meant to operate on my own account."

With apologies to "Punch."

WHERE ANGELS FEAR TO TREA

THE NEAR-SIGHTED MAN

"I'll teach you to sting me!"
—Orr in the Nashville *Tennessean*.

THE CAT CAME BACK

DAME EUROPE—"What, again! And I've not cleared the pieces from the last mess yet!"
—*Courier* (Liverpool).

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THE GRAND DUCHESS OF LUXEMBURG
The Girl Ruler who barred Germany with her car.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG

By Prof. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

LUXEMBURG, though one of the smallest states in Europe, has more than once figured somewhat prominently on the stage of medieval and modern history. In the fourteenth century it supplied a vigorous dynasty to Germany. Counts of Luxemburg sat upon the throne of the Holy Roman Empire, and the House of Luxemburg devised the policy which the House of Hapsburg successfully adopted. In the first half of the nineteenth century the ownership of Luxemburg was one of the most important points at issue between the new Kingdom of Belgium and the Dutch, and later in the same century it for a time seemed possible that 'the Luxemburg Question' might lead to war between Prussia and the French Empire.

The attention of all Europe was again called to the little state when on 2nd August Germany in violation of its own guarantee of neutrality invaded Luxemburg. And the recent announcement of the fact that the Grand Duchess of Luxemburg has been removed to Germany and interned there, would seem to indicate that the government and people of Luxemburg do not welcome the advent of German culture in their midst, and that they too will rejoice in the coming of a day of reckoning. In the circumstances a short sketch of the history of the Grand Duchy may be of interest.

It is only twenty four years since Luxemburg became an entirely separate independent state. Up till 1890 it was connected with Holland by a personal tie, as the King of Holland was the Grand Duke of Luxemburg. It is a little country wedged in between France, Belgium and Germany, with an area of about a thousand square miles, and containing about a quarter of a million of inhabitants. It is much smaller than was the Province of Luxemburg which once formed part of the Spanish Netherlands. In 1839, when the quarrel between Holland and Belgium was finally settled, the old Province of Luxemburg was divided into two, and the western part was given to the Kingdom of Belgium. The Belgian Province of Luxemburg is considerably larger in area than the Grand Duchy, but the population is about the same. The inhabitants of it are mostly French-speaking, while in the Grand Duchy a patois of German is chiefly spoken by the ordinary population, though the educated classes speak French. In both sections the sympathies of the people apparently are in favour of the French as against the Germans.

The history of Luxemburg down to the nineteenth century is very similar to that of the rest of the provinces of the Spanish Netherlands. Originally part of Gaul, it fell under the sway of the Frankish kings. When Charlemagne's empire was divided at Verdun in 843 it formed part of the Middle Kingdom, and when that kingdom broke up it was included in Lotharingia. Lotharingia was sometimes attached to France, sometimes to Germany, but ultimately it became one of the five great duchies of which Germany was composed. As the process of disintegration continued under feudal influences, Lotharingia was divided into the Duchies of Upper and Lower Lorraine, and Lower Lorraine in its turn was dissolved into the smaller principalities which were later known by the name of the Netherlands. One of these was the future Duchy of Luxemburg. At first it was known as the County of Ardennes, but in time it began to take its name from its chief town Luxemburg, or, to give it its old German name, Lützelburg.

In the beginning of the fourteenth century Henry, Count of Luxemburg, was elected Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. A little later his son John was elected King of Bohemia. This is, the famous 'John, the blind King of Bohemia,' who fell in the battle of Crecy. According to the popular though by no means unquestioned story, the crest of three white ostrich feathers with the motto of 'Ich dien'—I serve—which has long been borne by the Prince of Wales, was adopted by the Black Prince to commemorate his victory over the King of Bohemia. The explanation of the King's presence on a battle-field so far from Bohemia is to be found in the fact that as Count of Luxemburg King John was the friend and ally of the Valois King of France.

John's son Charles IV was one of the most important of the mediæval emperors. He it was who issued the Golden Bull which contains the constitution of the Holy Roman Empire. He raised Luxemburg to the rank of a Duchy, and held not

only the Kingdom of Bohemia, which then included Moravia, and Silesia, but also the Marks of Brandenburg, while his son Sigismund was married to the heiress of Poland and Hungary. It seemed for a time as if the House of Luxemburg were going to play the part afterwards taken by the House of Hapsburg, and by the enormous extent of its territorial possessions to make the imperial throne practically hereditary. Charles IV spoiled his own plan by dividing his possessions among his sons, but he may be regarded as the founder of the policy which the House of Austria succeeded in carrying out.

The last of the Luxemburg dynasty was the Emperor Sigismund, the son of Charles IV. He was King of Bohemia and Hungary and was elected Emperor in 1411. He is chiefly remembered for his connexion with the Council of Constance which ended the great schism in the Papacy and burned John Hus the Bohemian patriot and reformer. Sigismund had promised him a safe conduct but treacherously broke his plighted word for political reasons. It was Sigismund also who founded the present Prussian royal family by granting the Mark of Brandenburg to his friend Frederick of Hohenzollern, by whose advice chiefly he had been induced to break his word of honour. On Sigismund's death in 1437 the male line of the Luxemburgs became extinct and the Duchy passed to his niece Elizabeth who was also Duchess of Brabant. Antony, Duke of Brabant, was a brother of the Duke of Burgundy, John the Fearless, whose murder in 1419 led to that alliance of the Burgundians with Henry V of England which paved the way for the English conquest of France. His nephew, Philip the Good, the son of the murdered Duke John, succeeded in acquiring almost all the provinces of the Netherlands, for the Valois Dukes of Burgundy were nearly as fortunate in their matrimonial arrangements as were the Hapsburgs. Among his acquisitions was the Duchy of Luxemburg. Duke Antony left no children, and Duke Philip somehow persuaded the widowed Duchess to cut out her natural heirs and to leave the Duchy to him. Luxemburg thus became a Burgundian possession, and formed part of the territory which Charles the Bold desired to have erected into a kingdom.

Charles the Bold was killed at Nancy in 1477 while trying to conquer Lorraine. He had no son, and most of his territories including Luxemburg passed to his daughter Mary. To protect her from the wily old schemer Louis XI, Mary was married to Maximilian of Austria, the son of the Emperor Frederick III, and thus Luxemburg passed into the possession of the Hapsburgs. Philip, the son of Maximilian and Mary married Juana, the heiress of Spain, and their son Charles was at once King of Spain, Lord of the Netherlands including Luxemburg, Arch-Duke of Austria and Emperor of Germany. When Charles divided his dominions between his son Philip II and his brother Ferdinand, the Netherlands were given to Philip and thus for nearly two hundred years Luxemburg belonged to Spain.

When Louis XIV, in the latter half of the seventeenth century, set himself to conquer and annex as much as possible of the Spanish Netherlands, Luxemburg was one of the provinces which he specially wished to acquire. Apart from its nearness to France Luxemburg was a desirable acquisition, as its capital was regarded as one of the strongest natural fortresses in Europe. The town of Luxemburg, stands on a projecting rocky eminence above the valley of the river Alzette. Like ancient Jerusalem it is connected only on one side with the main plateau. On the other three sides it is defended by precipices 200 feet high. By the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659 a number of fortresses in Luxemburg had been ceded to France, but Louis was anxious to acquire the whole of it. In 1684, he captured the town of Luxemburg, and occupied it and most of the Duchy until 1697 when by the Treaty of Ryswick he was forced to surrender most of his recent conquests. The Treaty of Utrecht in 1714, transferred Luxemburg with the rest of the Spanish Netherlands to Austria. In 1793 it was again conquered by the French and remained in the possession of France till the fall of Napoleon led to the reconstruction of the map of Europe.

At the Congress of Vienna, Luxemburg was treated differently from the rest of the Netherlands. The other provinces were united with Holland to form the new Kingdom of the Netherlands, but Luxemburg was made one of the thirty-eight states of the new Germanic Confederation. To compensate the King of the Netherlands, the head of the House of Orange-Nassau, for certain of his territories which had been handed over to Prussia, the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg was conferred upon him, and he in consequence had a representative in the new German Diet. The fortress of Luxemburg became one of the fortresses of the Confederation which supplied three-fourths of the troops that garrisoned it. When, as the result of the revolution of 1830, Belgium was separated from Holland, the question as to the

future of Luxemburg presented considerable difficulty. The people of Luxemburg disliked the Dutch and wished to be united to Belgium, and the Belgians, who held most of the country except the capital, desired this also. At first the Great Powers proposed to leave Luxemburg to the King of Holland, but later a provision was made that Belgium should be permitted to purchase it from him. The final settlement arrived at in 1832, after the Dutch had invaded Belgium and had been defeated by the French, was the one already indicated. Luxemburg was divided in two and the western part with the capital was assigned to the King of Holland, while Belgium had to cede a part of Limburg in exchange for the share given to her. The Dutch did not accept the treaty for six years and during that time most of the country remained in the possession of the Belgians. When at last in 1838, the King of Holland intimated his willingness to accept it, the Belgians were furious at the idea of giving up anything at that late date. War would have been the result had not the allied powers insisted upon the acceptance of the terms already agreed upon, and the definitive treaty was signed at London in 1839.

When the Germanic Confederation came to an end in 1866, Luxemburg ceased to have any political connexion with Germany, but she still remains a member of the Zollverein, or customs union, into which she entered in 1842. The events which led to the break up of the old Confederation and the formation of the new North German Confederation under the presidency of Prussia led also to the future of Luxemburg becoming again a prominent subject in European politics. When Bismarck was bargaining with the Emperor Napoleon for his friendship and for his neutrality in the impending struggle between Prussia and Austria, he made the Emperor understand that it was right and natural that if Prussia received territorial acquisitions at the expense of her neighbours France should expect to receive something also by way of compensation. Unfortunately for himself Napoleon was persuaded by Bismarck, but did not take the precaution of having anything definite fixed beforehand in writing. Belgium apparently was the chief bait which Bismarck dangled before his dupe, but Luxemburg was another. Bismarck is said to have promised to assist the Emperor in purchasing Luxemburg from the King of Holland. When Bismarck had succeeded in crushing Austria and the rest of Germany and no longer feared Napoleon he of course altered his attitude completely. Napoleon soon found that he was to have no 'compensation.' Belgium was, he soon saw, out of the question, and when he had arranged for the purchase of Luxemburg from the King of Holland, Prussian diplomacy succeeded in checkmating him. A Conference of the Great Powers was held in London in 1867, at which it was decided that the Prussian troops should evacuate the fortress of Luxemburg, that the enormously strong fortifications should be demolished, and that the neutrality of Luxemburg should be guaranteed by the Great Powers. Prussia was of course one of the signatory powers and it was actually on her proposal that Luxemburg was declared neutral.

By the Treaty of London, Luxemburg was made a completely independent state and it was with the violation of this treaty that Germany opened her campaign against France. The personal connexion with Holland lasted till 1890. In that year King William died and was succeeded on the throne of the Netherlands by his daughter, the present Queen Wilhelmina. Luxemburg, however passed to his next male heir, Duke Adolph the head of the House of Orange-Nassau. As he had daughters only he procured a change in the order of succession, and on his death two years ago he was succeeded by the present Grand Duchess. It would be interesting to know why the young sovereign—she is only twenty years old—has been treated as a prisoner of war. Rumour has it that the Kaiser was anxious to obtain her hand for one of his unmarried sons but that the Grand Duchess declined the honour, and perhaps that may be regarded as evidence of a dangerously hostile attitude to Germany.

So far the material injury inflicted upon Luxemburg by Germany is trifling compared with the havoc that has been wrought in Belgium. The Germans have been complacently pointing out to the Belgians how sensibly Luxemburg has acted in accepting the inevitable and submitting to the violation of her neutrality. But what of the future? Luxemburg will in all probability become the scene of severe fighting when the time arrives for the withdrawal of the invading armies from France. The German forces it is certain will struggle to keep the conflict as long as possible away from the sacred soil of the Fatherland, and will most likely entrench them strongly in Luxemburg and the Grand Duchy will become a battlefield with all the horrors which that implies. This is what the German violation of neutrality may mean for Luxemburg, and what 'compensation' can the Germans offer her for the devastation that will then be wrought?

IRELAND AND THE WAR.

ONE of the most memorable episodes which the war has brought in relief is the exceptional display of Irish loyalty at a time when a united front is more than ever imperative. Whatever may be Ireland's constant agitation with regard to her domestic politics there is no question of her determination to stand by the Empire of which it has been her ambition to be a distinguished and autonomous component. Even at the thick of the Home Rule agitation, Sir Edward Grey in his remarkable statement in the House of Commons a few days before the break up of the Anglo-German hostilities made this happy declaration: "One bright spot in the whole of this terrible situation is Ireland. The general feeling throughout Ireland—and I would like this to be clearly understood abroad—does not make that a consideration which we have to take into account." That prophecy has been more than amply fulfilled. In his speech in the House of Commons Mr. Redmond gave testimony to the patriotism of United Ireland. And when Mr. Asquith addressed a great gathering in Dublin the response to his appeal was at once instant and enthusiastic. Ireland as a small State has a special interest in the War and the Prime Minister directed pointed attention to this fact,

But the issues raised by the war are of such a kind that unless I mistake her people and misrepresent her history they touch a vibrating chord both in her imagination and in her conscience. How can you Irishmen be deaf to the cry of the smaller nationalities to help them in their struggle for freedom whether, as in the case of Belgium, in maintaining what she has won, or, as in the case of Poland or the Balkan States, in regaining what they have lost or in acquiring and putting upon a stable foundation what has been fairly theirs? How again, can you Irishmen, if I understand you, sit by in cool detachment and with folded arms while we in company of our gallant Allies of France and Russia are opposing a world-wide resistance to pretensions which threaten to paralyse and sterilise all progress and the best destinies of mankind?

In urging Irishmen to recruit in numbers he referred to their traditional martial spirit:—

There was a time when, through the operations of laws which everyone now acknowledges to have been both unjust and impolitic, the martial spirit and capacity for which Irishmen have always been conspicuous found its chief outlet in the alien armies of the Continent; and I have seen it computed—I do not know whether with precise accuracy—but I have seen it computed upon good authority that in the first 50 years of the 18th century, where the penal laws were here in full swing, nearly half a million Irishmen enlisted under the banners of the Empire of France and Spain, and we at home in the United Kingdom suffered a double loss, for, not only were we drained year by year of some of our best fighting material, but over and over again we found ourselves engaged in battle array suffering from and inflicting deadly loss upon those who might have been, and under happier conditions would have been fellow-soldiers of our own.

But the conditions have changed and new opportunities are open to them. Said the Prime Minister:—

If our need is great, your opportunity is also great. The call which I am making is, as you know well, backed by the sympathy of your fellow-Irishmen in all parts of the Empire and the world. Old animosities between us are dead scattered like the autumn leaves to the four winds of heaven. We are a united nation, owing and paying to our Sovereign the heartfelt allegiance of men who at home not only love but enjoy for themselves, the liberty which our soldiers and our sailors are fighting, by land and by sea, to maintain and to extend for others. There is no question of compulsion or bribery. What we want—we believe you are ready and eager to give—is the free-will offering of a free people.

The response to this great appeal was witnessed in the Recruiting Office. Mr. Redmond prayed:

Might this war bring Ireland peace and union, and after Irishmen had fought side by side on the battlefield of Europe, might there be banished for ever from Ireland's shores the idea of fratricidal strife?

He then pointed out that Ireland's highest material interests were at stake. After forty years of infinite labour and sacrifice they had slowly by the repeal of unjust Laws, by the enactment of ameliorative measures, won for the country at least a chance of progress and prosperity. Ireland had all these things at stake in this war.

He then referred to the valour of Irish soldiers:

"Wellington, fourteen years after Waterloo, said that at least one-half of the troops entrusted to his command were Irish Catholics, and without their blood and valour his military talents might have been exerted in vain," and he gave Ireland's attitude in one unmistakable sentence.

"I believe I speak for the overwhelming majority of those for whom I have a right to speak, and I say to the Prime Minister, and through him to the people of Great Britain, 'You have kept faith with Ireland; Ireland will keep faith with you.'"

One of the miscalculations of the Kaiser on the outbreak of hostilities was his notion that Great Britain was a house divided against herself and that she could scarcely present a united front when she was yet in the throes of the Irish controversy. The Kaiser was disillusioned when Mr. Redmond made the dramatic announcement that Ulstermen and nationalists were one and indivisible in the face of a common enemy. The following statement by John Redmond speaks for itself :—

The whole-hearted endorsement by the Irish people and the Irish Volunteers of the spirit of my declaration, made on the impulse of the moment and without seeking for any conditions whatever, that the defence of Ireland might safely be left to the sons of Ireland themselves, shows the profound change which has been brought about in the relations of Ireland to the Empire by the events of the past three years.

The Irish people know and appreciate the fact fully that, at last, after long centuries of misunderstanding, the democracy of Great Britain has finally and irrevocably decided to trust them and to give them back their national liberties.

By overwhelming British majorities a charter of liberty for Ireland has been three times passed by the House of Commons, and in a few hours, will be the law of the land. A new era has opened in the history of the two nations.

During the long discussion on the Irish problem in Parliament and on the platform, we promised the British people that the concession of liberty would have the same effects in Ireland as in every other part of the Empire and notably in recent years in South Africa; that disaffection would give way to friendship and goodwill; and that Ireland would become a strength, instead of a weakness to the Empire.

The democracy of Great Britain listened to our appeal, and have kept faith with Ireland. It is now a duty of honour for Ireland to keep faith with them.

A test to search men's souls has arisen. The Empire is engaged in the most serious war in history. It is a just war, provoked by the intolerable military despotism of Germany. It is a war for the defence of the sacred rights and liberties of small nations, and the respect and enlargement of the great principle of nationality. Involved in it is the fate of France, our kindred country, the chief nation of that powerful Celtic race to which we belong. The fate of Belgium, to whom we are attached by the same great ties of race, and by the common desire of a small nation to assert its freedom, and the fate of Poland, whose sufferings and whose struggle bear so marked a resemblance to our own.

It is a war for high ideals of human government and international relations; and Ireland would be false to her history and to every consideration of honour, good faith, and self-interest did she not willingly bear her share in its burdens and its sacrifices.

We have, even when no ties of sympathy bound our country to Great Britain, always given our quota, and more than our quota, to the firing line, and we shall do so now.

We have a right honour to claim that Irish recruits for the Expeditionary Force should be kept together as a unit, officered as far as possible by Irishmen, composed, if possible, of county battalions, to form, in fact, an "Irish Brigade," so that Ireland may gain national credit for their deeds, and feel, like other communities of the Empire, that she, too, has contributed an army bearing her name in this historic struggle.

Simultaneously with the formation of this Irish Brigade for service abroad, our Volunteers must be put in a state of efficiency as speedily as practicable for the defence of the country.

In this way, by the time the war ends, Ireland will possess an army of which she may be proud.

I feel certain that the young men of our country will respond to this appeal with the gallantry of their race.

In conclusion, I would appeal to our countrymen of a different creed and of opposite political opinions, to accept the friendship we have so consistently offered them; to allow this great war, as to which their opinions and ours are the same, and our action will also be the same, to swallow up all the smaller issues in the domestic government of Ireland which now divide us; that as our soldiers are going to fight, to shed their blood and to die at each other's side in the same Army against the same enemy and for the same high purpose, their union in the field may lead to a union in their home, and that their blood may be the seal that will bring all Ireland together in one nation, and in liberties equal and common to all.

ITALY AND THE WAR

BY

MR. A. GALLETTI, I. C. S.

THE Editor has asked me to write him something about the attitude of the Italians towards the War. Generalisations on such a subject are very difficult because there is no such thing as a national mind and no two heads are made alike; and this is a particularly complex problem; but I can perhaps throw a little light on it.

Different classes in Italy are likely to regard it very differently. If a vote were to be taken of military and naval officers I should think it would be given nearly unanimously in favour of immediate war against Austria, from General Caneva, the Commander-in-chief in the Tripoli policing expedition, downwards, though Caneva started life as an Austrian subject and lieutenant in the Austrian army. The officers have honour, glory and promotion to gain by war. The upper middle class, almost every family in which has some relative an officer, would largely sympathise with them and hope to gain some reflected glory. The politicians also as a class were only in favour of the Triple Alliance for what they could get out of it; that is, a guarantee that they would be allowed to pursue without European disturbance their little adventures in Abyssinia, Somaliland and Tripoli, and to maintain at a comparatively small expense the position of Italy as one of the Great Powers.

I was in Italy throughout the Tripoli affair and I found these classes unanimously in favour of war—if arrangements for once more giving an elementary administration to that old Roman province could be called a war. On the other hand I never spoke to a working man who was not most strongly against it. The ordinary private and his father and uncles have no honor, glory or promotion to gain by war; he gets nothing but danger, discomfort and the bullying of the officers. The working-class did not see why they should be sent to police North Africa; the government, they considered, could find much better employment for the tax-payer's money in providing more education for the people, and pushing industries and enabling the working-man's sons to reach a higher standard of life than himself.

The great mass of the Italian people was against the Tripoli expedition, but only the upper classes are articulate; so Italy was represented throughout the world as unanimously for it; and this is utterly false.

I was also in Italy during the Abyssinian War. That also was a war of the upper classes; but it was not then possible for the upper classes to misrepresent the inarticulate masses; for the masses showed their disapproval by action. They tore up the rails before departing troop-trains, and in Milan, where the artisans are all educated men, rose in a revolt, which was only quelled by planting artillery in the principal thoroughfares and massacring them by the thousand.

This was nearly twenty years ago and since then Italy has been rapidly democratised; till now it is far the most democratic country in Europe. It is easier for me to gauge the progress made than for men who have never left Italy. I have returned to it occasionally after long intervals, and on each occasion I have been astonished. England seems to me to have changed comparatively little. The old tyrannies of squire and parson and magistrate, the old quaint mediævalisms and insularities subsist; but in Italy the classes corresponding to squires and parsons have lost almost all their influence, the nobility and the crown are of no importance at all, and every man is the equal of every other apart from education. It is only education that counts. The working-class are all very eager for education. They have also become great travellers. They migrate temporarily in enormous numbers and especially to four republican countries, France, Switzerland, the United States and the Argentine and then return to Italy as soon as they have made a little money. Every other ryot or artisan you meet has either been himself, or has a near relative who has been, to one or other of these countries. They come back with a wider outlook on life, a desire for the higher standard of living which follows industrialism, and with cosmopolitan sympathies.

The great socialist party in Italy holds internationalist views and is never tired of proclaiming them. The working-men are predominantly internationalist, and not nationalist. The university students also have an internationalist association and are a far larger and more democratic class than that of the English University student.

I do not think any war would be popular with the Italian masses; but the least unpopular would be a war with the Germans. The masses do not

distinguish between Austrians and Germans. The Austrians were always called "Germans" and during the wars of liberation they were the national enemy. Moreover the working-classes do not emigrate to Austria and Germany in masses as they do to France; and they do not ever learn German, though those who emigrate to France soon pick up enough French to make themselves understood, and some of those who have been to America come back with a smattering of English and a liking for English speaking people. Further, the Internationalists are exceedingly indignant with the German social democrats for not refusing to fight for the Kaiser and not even voting against the war in the Reichstag.

Twenty years ago the king counted for something. Humbert was known to have been in favour of the imperialoid adventure in Abyssinia, and when the people rebelled he shut up the Parliament, and appointed a general to be Prime minister, and the General acting after the manner of his kind, suppressed the popular movement by military measures.

Among the upper classes there appear to be hardly any pro-Austrians, and I should doubt whether even the present king is one; but even if he is it does not matter a bit. He could not now close the parliament, nor appoint a General to be Prime Minister. The people are too strong and the constitution is now too democratic. By the last electoral reform manhood suffrage was established and even illiterates over thirty now have the vote.

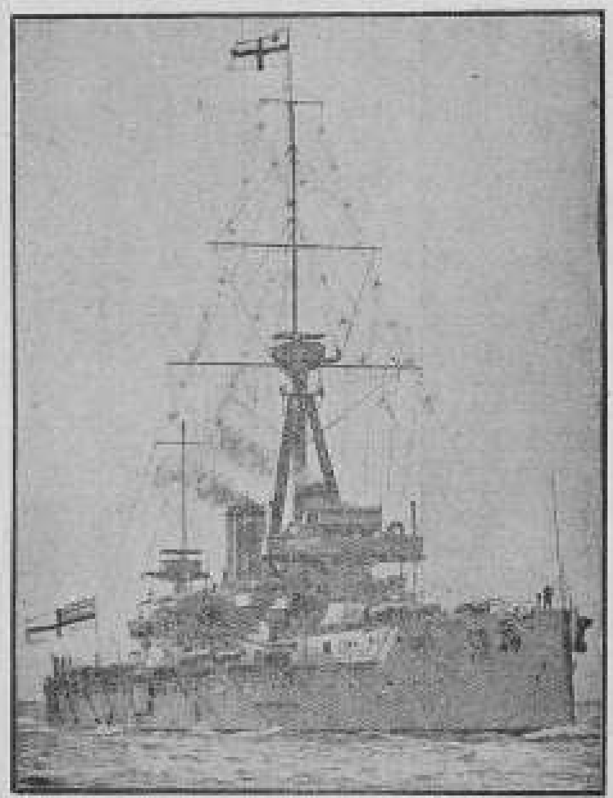
The only pro-Austrian I have heard of in the upper classes is a brother-in-law of my own (who contributed one or two articles to the *Indian Review* some years ago). He wrote an article explaining his views, but not a magazine or newspaper would print it. He then got my sister to send it to the king, and the king, knowing our family, read it and had an answer to that effect sent to her. But I should doubt whether he read it with sympathy, and as I have said, his personal views are of no importance.

The man whose personal views count most in Italy is undoubtedly Giolitti, who has been many times Prime-minister. He is a man of peace, who has always reserved his energies for the improvement of the internal administration, and has repeatedly declared that foreign affairs do not interest him. He was Prime-minister at the time of the Tripoli affair, but was far from enthusiastic. Soon after the declaration of war he had to make a speech at a banquet, and it was expected he would state the Italian case. But those who expected him to indulge in the usual unctuous and hypocritical rhetoric of Prime-ministers on such occasions were disappointed. He made only a short reference to the war with Turkey, describing it as a historical fatality, and passed on to other subjects. He is now probably exerting his immense influence on the side of neutrality.

History and literature have little influence on the masses, but the minds of the directing classes is largely moulded by them. The directing classes in Italy are not likely to consider any political problem without having in their minds the history of the Roman Empire, of the Venetian Republic, of the wars and patriotic literature of the nineteenth century, of the patriotic literature of the preceding centuries. They cannot forget that Palmerston and Gladstone and Napoleon III assisted in the unification of Italy, and that the arch-enemy was Austria under this very Francis Joseph who still reigns. So long ago as 1848, when my grandfather commanded the troops of the Roman Republic, this same Francis Joseph declared war on the Republic to reinstate the Pope.

Italy once had a strong party in favour of the Holy Roman Empire which Austria represented till 1806 A.D. They were known as the Ghibellines and the great Dante, still the favourite reading of the cultured Italian, was a member and impassioned exponent of its principles. The German Emperors were considered the successors of the Cæsars, and the hope of a restoration of the universal peace-giving Empire of Rome lay in a re-conquest of western Europe and all the shores of the Mediterranean by these Germans. That they were German made little difference; for even in the hey-day of the Roman Empire, and before the separation of East from West, a Spaniard, an African, an Asiatic had sat on the throne of the Cæsars; and even Theodoric the Goth whom the Germans celebrate as Dietrich von Bern and the Italians as Teodorico di Verona, was Roman in culture (as vividly delineated for us in the letters of Sidonius, the Roman Senator) if Teuton by race. In Dante's time such culture as Germany had was still Italian and a German Emperor might in fact be far more of an Italian than a German. Frederick II, the Holy Roman Emperor, was one of the earliest of the vernacular poets of Italy, was born at Iesi, and held court at Palermo.

Every century since Theodoric's has differentiated the Roman Provincials with increasing rapidity from the Romans of the mother-country.



H. M. S. DREADNOUGHT.

THE QUEEN OF ITALY.

SIGNOR ANTONIO SALANDRA.
The Premier of Italy.

SIGNOR GIOLLITTI.
The Ex-Premier of Italy.

BARON SIDNEY SONNINO.
Italian Foreign Minister.

COUNT CADORNA.
The Italian Generalissimo.

SIGNOR SALANDRA ON THE WAR.

THE foregoing was written as early as September last at the beginning of the great war. Since then events have moved with tremendous rapidity and Italy herself has thrown in her lot with the Allies.

The Italian Premier, Signor Salandra, delivered at the capital in Rome an oration in reply to a speech in the German Reichstag in which the Imperial Chancellor referred wrathfully to Italy's intervention in the war.

Signor Salandra said:-

"Our aspirations had long been known, as was also our judgment on the act of criminal madness by which they shook the world and robbed the alliance itself of its closest *raison d'être*. The Green Book prepared by Baron Sonnino with whom it is the pride of my life to stand united in entire harmony in this solemn hour after thirty years of friendship—(prolonged cheers and shouts of 'Long live Sonnino')—shows the long, difficult, and useless negotiations that took place between December and May. But it is not true, as has been asserted without a shadow of foundation, that the Ministry reconstituted last November made a change in the direction of our international policy. The Italian Government, whose policy has never changed, severely condemned at the very moment when it learned of it the aggression of Austria against Serbia, and foresaw the consequences which had not been foreseen by those who had premeditated the stroke with such lack of conscience.

* * * *

"The Italian Government on July 27 and July 28 emphasised in clear and unmistakable language to Berlin and Vienna the question of the cession of the Italian Provinces subject to Austria, and we declared that if we did not obtain adequate compensation the Triple Alliance would have been irreparably broken. (Loud and prolonged cheers.) Impartial history will say that Austria, having found Italy in July, 1913, and in October, 1913, hostile to her intentions of aggression against Serbia, attempted last summer in agreement with Germany the method of surprise and the *fait accompli*.

"The horrible crime of Sarajevo was exploited as a pretext a month after it happened—this was proved by the refusal of Austria to accept the very extensive offers of Serbia nor at the moment of the general conflagration would Austria have been satisfied with the unconditional acceptance of the ultimatum. Count Berchtold, on July 31, declared to the Duke of Avarna that, if there had been a possibility of mediation being exercised, it could not have interrupted hostilities, which had already begun with Serbia. This was the mediation for which Great Britain and Italy were working. In any case, Count Berchtold was not disposed to accept mediation tending to weaken the conditions indicated in the Austrian Note, which naturally would have been increased at the end of the war.

* * * *

"On July 29, Count Berchtold stated to the Duke of Avarna that he was not inclined to enter into any engagement concerning the eventual conduct of Austria in the case of a conflict with Serbia.

"Where is then the treason, the iniquity, the surprise, if after nine months of vain efforts to reach an honourable understanding which recognised in equitable measure our rights and our liberties we resumed liberty of action? The truth is that Austria and Germany believed until the last days that they had to deal with an Italy weak, blustering, but not acting, capable of trying blackmail, but not enforcing by arms her good right, with an Italy which could be paralysed by spending a few millions, and which by dealings which she could not avow was placing herself between the country and the Government. (Very loud cheers.)

"I will not deny the benefits of the alliance; benefits, however, not one-sided, but accruing to all the contracting parties, and perhaps not more to us than to the others. The continued suspicions and the aggressive intentions of Austria against Italy are notorious and are authentically proved. The chief of the General Staff, Baron Conard Von Hoetzendorf, always maintained that war against Italy was inevitable either on the question of the Irredentist provinces or from jealousy, that Italy intended to aggrandise herself as soon as she was prepared, and meanwhile opposed everything that Austria wished to undertake in the Balkans and consequently it was necessary to humiliate her in order that Austria might have her hands free, and he deplored that Italy had not been attacked in 1907. Even the

Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs recognised that in the military partythe opinion was prevalent that Italy must be suppressed by war because from the kingdom of Italy came the attractive force of the Italian provinces of the empire, and consequently by a victory over the kingdom and its political annihilation all hope for the Irredentists would cease.

"We see now on the basis of documents how our allies aided us in the Lybian undertaking. The operations brilliantly begun by the Duke of Abruzzi against the Turkish torpedo-boats encountered at Preveza were stopped by Austria in a sudden and absolute manner. Count Aehrenthal, on October 1, informed our Ambassador at Vienna that our operations had made a painful impression upon him, and that he could not allow them to be continued. It was urgently necessary, he said, to put an end to them and to give orders to prevent them from being renewed either in Adriatic or in Ionian waters. The following day the German Ambassador at Vienna, in a still more threatening manner, confidently informed our Ambassador that Count Aehrenthal had requested him to telegraph to his Government to give the Italian Government to understand that if it continued its naval operations in the Adriatic and in the Ionian Seas it would have to deal direct with Austria-Hungary. (Murmurs.)

"And it was not only in the Adriatic and in the Ionian Seas that Austria paralysed our actions. On November 5, Count Aehrenthal informed the Duke of Avarna that he had learnt that Italian warships had been reported off Salonika, where they had used electric searchlights—(laughter)—and declared that our action on the Ottoman coasts of European Turkey as well as on the Ægean Islands could not have been allowed either by Austria-Hungary or by Germany, because it was contrary to the Triple Alliance Treaty.

"In March, 1912, Count Berchtold, who had in the meantime succeeded Count Aehrenthal, declared to the German Ambassador in Vienna that, in regard to our operations against the coasts of European Turkey and the Ægean Islands, he adhered to the point of view of Count Aehrenthal according to which these operations were considered by the Austro-Hungarian Government contrary to the engagement entered into by us by Article 7 of the Triple Alliance Treaty. As for our operations against the Dardanelles, he considered it opposed, first, to the promise made by us not to proceed to any act which might endanger the *status quo* in the Balkans, and, secondly, to the spirit of the same treaty which was based on the maintenance of the *status quo*.

"Afterwards, when our squadron at the entrance to the Dardanelles was bombarded by Fort Kumkalessi and replied damaging that fort, Count Berchtold complained of what had happened considering it contrary to the promises we had made, and declared that if the Italian Government desired to resume its liberty of action, the Austro-Hungarian Government would have done the same. (Murmurs.) He added that he could not have allowed us to undertake in the future similar operation or operations in any way opposed to this point of view. In the same way our projected occupation of Chiose was prevented. It is superfluous to remark how many lives of Italian soldiers and how many millions were sacrificed through the persistent vetoing of actions against Turkey, who knew that she was protected by our allies against all attacks on her vital parts. (Cheers.)

"We were bitterly reproached for not having accepted the offers made towards the end of May, but were these offers made in good faith? (Laughter and cheers.) Certain documents indicate that they were not. Francis Joseph said that Italy was regarding the patrimony of his house with greedy eyes. Herr Von Bethmann-Hollweg said that the aim of these concessions was to purchase our neutrality, and, therefore, gentlemen, you may applaud us for not having accepted them. (Loud cheers.) Moreover, these concessions even in their last and belated edition in no way responded to the objectives of Italian policy which are, first, the defence of Italianism, the greatest of our duties; secondly, a secure military frontier replacing that which was imposed upon us in 1866, by which all the gates of Italy are open to our adversaries; thirdly, a strategical situation in the Adriatic less dangerous and unfortunate than that which we have, and of which you have seen the effects in the last few days. All these essential advantages were substantially denied us.

"To our minimum demand for the granting of independence to Trieste the reply was to offer Trieste administrative autonomy. Also the question of fulfilling the promises was very important. We were told not to doubt that they would be fulfilled, because we should have Germany's guarantee, but if at the end of the war Germany had not been able to keep it, what would our position have been? And in any case, after this

agreement, the Triple Alliance would have been renewed but in much less favourable conditions, for there would have been one sovereign state and two subject states.

"On the day when one of the clauses of the Treaty was not fulfilled, or on the day when the municipal autonomy of Trieste was violated by an Imperial decree or by a lieutenant's orders, to whom should we have addressed ourselves? To our common superior—to Germany? (Laughter.) I do not wish to speak of Germany to you without admiration and respect. I am the Italian Prime Minister, not the German Chancellor, and I do not lose my head. (Loud cheers.) But with all respect for learned, powerful, and great Germany, an admirable example of organisation and resistance in the name of Italy I declare for no subjection and no protectorate over anyone. (Cheers.) The dream of a universal hegemony is shattered. The world has risen. The peace and civilisation of future humanity must be founded on respect for existing national autonomies. (Loud cheers.) Among these Germany will have to sit as an equal, and not as a master. (Loud cheers.)"

* * * *

KING EMMANUEL AND HIS MINISTERS.

Italy is governed by Victor Emmanuel III, the third constitutional king. The first was Victor Emmanuel II., king of Sardinia, of the House of Savoy-Carignano, who was declared king of Italy on March 17th, 1861, by the first Italian Parliament which assembled in February 1861, though it was not until 1870 that the province of Rome was occupied by the Italian army and annexed to the kingdom. The second was king Humbert I., who on July 29th, 1900, was assassinated at Movza by the anarchist Bresci. Victor Emmanuel III. was born November 11th, 1869, and in October 1896 was married to Princess Helene of Montenegro. He earned the respect and confidence of the people over whom he rules before he ascended the throne, and his kindliness of nature and rectitude of purpose are universally acknowledged. The heir to the throne is Umberto Nicola Tommaso Giovanni Maria, Prince of Piedmont, born September 15th, 1904.

THE ITALIAN GENERALISSIMO.

Count Cadorna is the son of a famous General who distinguished himself during Italy's war of independence against Austria in 1859. He comes of an old Piedmontese family and is regarded as one of the ablest generals of the day. Four years ago he commanded during manœuvres a force representing an invading army in the north of Italy on the ground in which Napoleon's Italian campaigns were carried out. He proved by a piece of brilliant strategy—which was such as only one of the most scientific of military minds could have conceived—the ease with which Italy could be invaded from the north, and the demonstration was effective in procuring the increase of the army in peace time from 225,000 to 250,000 and then to 275,000. Count Cadorna was one of the generalissimi selected some time ago as officer worthy of being appointed to a large command in the case of a European war. Another of these generals was Caneva who commanded the Tripoli Expedition. Among other Italian militaries held in high estimation are Generals Ameglia, Sara, (who will probably command the famous regiment of Bersaglieri) Camerana, Passoni, Bagni, Grandi, and Porro.

SIGNOR SALANDRA.

Signor Antonio Salandra, under whose leadership the Italian Government have decided to recover the unredeemed Italian-speaking provinces from Austria by the sword, comes from the South, and is in fact the first Southerner to occupy the premiership since the fall of the late Marchese Antonio Di Rudini in 1898. Born in Apulia, he is sixty-three years of age and has had thirty years of Parliamentary experience. Beginning life as a Professor of Political Science first at Naples, then in Rome, he became Under Secretary for Finance in the first Di Rudini Cabinet of 1891, subsequently filling the same post in the last Crispi Administration from 1893 to the fatal battle of Adowa in 1896. In the second and reactionary Pelloux Cabinet of 1899, he became Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. When that Ministry fell, he remained for six years out of office acting as the Parliamentary Lieutenant of his old Chief at the Treasury, Baron Sidny Sonnino, then leader of the Constitutional Opposition. When Baron Sonnino in 1906 and again in 1909 formed his two "Hundered Days' Administrations," he placed his friend and collaborator in charge of the Italian finances; but Signor Salandra's term of office was too short to give him much time for reforms.

THE ITALIAN ARMY AND NAVY.

The following particulars are taken from *Hazell's Annual* :—

The able-bodied men annually becoming liable for service are divided partly by exemptions and partly by lot into three portions, only the first of which (one-third of the whole) is fully trained, the second undergoing a recruit course and a few repetition courses in later years, and the performing no service at all. The full period of service is 2 years with the colours, 6 on furlough, and 4 in the Mobile Militia. Men of the second portion, though taken only for slight training, have the same periods of liability for service. The third portion is untrained. Of recent years large numbers of Mobile Militia (which still consists of fully trained reservists only) have been embodied for brief refresher trainings. There are 12 army corps, each having 2 infantry divisions, except that in the district of Rome there are 3. The organisation of the permanent army comprises 96 regiments of light infantry, 12 regiments of Bersaglieri, and 8 Alpine regiments (in all 389 battalions). There are 29 regiments of cavalry (150 squadrons) and 36 regiments of field artillery, with 192 gun batteries. The army also comprises 1 regiment of horse artillery (8 batteries), 2 of mountain artillery (36 batteries), 10 regiments of coast artillery, and a brigade in Sardinia, 2 regiments of fortress artillery and 6 of engineers. A battalion of aviators has also been created.

The mean peace effective was about 13,600 officers and 236,000 men.

The total war strength of the forces is roughly as follows, but it must be remarked that the men of the territorial militia are untrained :—

With the colours, officers and men ..	250,000
On unlimited furlough, officers & men	450,000
Mobile militia officers and men ..	320,000
Territorial militia officers and men	2,200,000
Total ..	3,220,000

of whom 1,020,000 are more or less trained.

THE NAVY.

There are three naval districts, each administered by a flag officer. Seamen for the Italian Fleet are recruited by conscription ; all men of 20 years of age following a seafaring life must serve at sea for a month or more. Actually the whole draft is not required, and the part which is taken for service remains afloat for 4 years. There are also training schools for boys.

Chief Constructor : Giuseppe Valcecchi. President of the Superior Council : Vice-Admiral Luigi Farvelli. Chief of the Naval War Staff: Vice-Admiral Rocca.

The 1914-1915 estimates amounted to £10,313,009, including expenses for the mercantile navy, as against £13,333,762.

The personnel voted for 1915-16 was 40,073 officers and men, of which number about one-third are volunteers and the remainder conscript. The executive officers are divided thus : 1 admiral, 7 vice-admirals, 15 rear-admirals, 56 captains, 75 commanders, 85 lieut.-commanders, 420 lieutenants, and 340 sub-lieutenants.

The number of ships on October 31st, 1914, was :—

- Battleships :—15 (and 6 building).
- Armoured cruisers :—10.
- Light cruisers :— 16 (2 building).
- Torpedo vessels :— 3.
- Torpedo-boat destroyers :— 33 (and 13 building).
- Torpedo boats :—94 (and 12 building).
- Submarines :—20 (and 12 projected).

The Government dockyards are at Spezia, Naples, Venice, and Taranto. At the first named there are six docks, two of which are able to take the largest warship afloat and two large building ships. Venice has two docks which take cruisers, a dock for battleship being under construction ; while at Taranto there is one dock able to take any warship, and a large building ship. There is a building-yard at Castellamere. In September 1909, Brindisi was made the headquarters and base of the torpedo flotilla, and with a view to strengthening Italy's resources, on the Adriatic coastline, Ancona was selected as the site of new naval base.

The private establishments for warship building and equipment are adequate and well situated, and include the Ansaldo Company, which was amalgamated with the British firm of Armstrong, Whitword in 1903, with engineering work near Genoa and a ship-yard at Sestri Ponente ; the Terni combination with gun and steel works at Terni and ship-yard at La Foce (Genoa) and Leghorn, and various establishments for torpedo craft at Naples.

GENERAL CANEVA.
Commander-in-Chief of the Army.

GENERAL ZUPELLI.
Minister of War.

DUKE OF THE ABRUZZI.
Commander of the Second Squadron of the Navy.

SIGNOR VIALE.
Minister of the Navy.

THE AUSTRO-ITALIAN FRONTIER.

The country north and east of the heavy border line is the south-western portion of Austria, while south and west of the border is the northern part of Italy. The shaded areas are the principal parts of Austrian territory which Italy is said to have demanded.

"The Outlook," New York.

The Powers : Their Army and Navy Chiefs.

THE ARMY CHIEFS.

Lord Kitchener.

HORATIO Herbert Kitchener is the eldest son of the late Lieut. Col. H. H. Kitchener of Suffolk. He was born on the 24th June at Gunsborough Villa, County Kerry, Ireland. He appears to have been a quiet, but none the less mischievous boy, taciturn and reserved, with no taste for athletics, but good at books, especially mathematics. He entered the Royal Engineers in 1871 and after passing through the Royal Academy, Woolwich, he was engaged on the Palestine Survey from 1874 to 1878 and from 1878-82 in the Cyprus Survey. He was in 1883 induced to join the Egyptian Army which was being reorganised by Sir Evelyn Wood.

Kitchener took part in the Nile Expedition of 1884, and two years later was appointed Governor of Suakin. He led the Egyptian troops whom he had converted into really good soldiers against Osman Digna and Handub in 1888 and was made A. D. C. to Queen Victoria. From 1888 to 1892 he was the strenuous Adjutant General of the Egyptian Army and the value of his services was recognised by his being raised to the rank of Sirdar. Four years later he took Dongola which was followed by the bestowal of the K. C. B. His next important service was in connection with the suppression, and defeat of the Khalifa in September, 1898. For this service he was raised to the Peerage as Baron Kitchener of Khartoum and Aspall. He was also presented with the Freedom of the City of London and a Sword of Honor. The D. C. L. Degree of Oxford was conferred on him and in 1899 he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament and a grant of £30,000. There can be no doubt that the crowning triumph of his life in Egypt was reached in 1898 when he routed the Dervishes at Atbara and Omdurman and completely destroyed the power of Madhism. It was in that campaign that his abilities as a great financier came to be known. During a flying visit to England, on the conclusion of the Soudan victories, Lord Kitchener raised £100,000 for the foundation of an educational College at Khartoum in memory of General Gordon. Two years later his services were needed in South Africa in the Boer War and he went out as Chief of the Staff under Lord Roberts in December 1899, and when Lord Roberts returned to England in November 1900, he was entrusted with the chief command which he held with conspicuous ability.

Lord Kitchener returned to England in July 1902, and proceeded to India to take up the Chief Command of the Indian Army in November.

Constitutionally intolerant of advice and public criticism, Lord Kitchener failed to receive the whole-hearted confidence and support of his colleagues and subordinates, but with his strength of character this mattered little and he put the work of reorganisation through. The work of Kitchener culminated in an impossible situation—Army *versus* Civil Government, in which Lord Curzon, then Viceroy, joined issue with him, over the abolition of the military membership in the Imperial Council. The discussion took a largely personal tune in the later stages and although the Home Government supported Lord Kitchener it is extremely dubious if history will approve of the decision. In any case the controversy led to Lord Curzon's resignation. In 1902, Kitchener was placed on the establishment of Generals and in 1909 he was made Field Marshal. In 1911 he was made a Knight of St. Patrick and succeeded Sir Eldon Gorst as British Agent and Consul-General in Egypt.

Lord Kitchener's work in Egypt since has been excellent. Autocratic as he is in his methods, his administration has been a wholly benevolent despotism and he has vastly ameliorated the condition of the Fellaheen by the introduction of helpful legislation. He has extended education, and has succeeded in making British rule most popular and respected. Sedition has disappeared and he has brought to bear on his administrative work in Egypt the same thoroughness, experience and common sense that tended to make his military career such a marvellous success.

Now that at the eleventh hour he has been appointed Secretary for War till the War lasts, England may expect him with confidence to do his duty. Lord Kitchener is perhaps the greatest Englishman of to-day.

He is an organiser of victory as Moltke was, and Prussians understand better than England what that means.

Field Marshal Sir John French.

It has been said that South Africa is the grave of reputations. Sir John French has falsified this dictum. In fact he made his mark first as a superb cavalry leader in the South African War. On Great Britain's declaration of war with Germany Sir John French was gazetted Inspector General of the Forces. A Paris journal, the *Figaro*, commented that even so long back as seven or eight years ago Sir John was selected for the task of commanding the English Expeditionary Force in the event of a continental war. And the selection of Sir John French to lead the British Army in the present war has given the utmost satisfaction both in England and in France. Nothing can exceed the rapture of the French people as they saw the admirable British troops led by the leader with the predestined and auspicious name of French, landing in France after a century not as enemies but as friends and co-adjutors in the cause of civilization and humanity against the wanton assaults of overwhelming German hordes. No army ever marched under a more confident General.

Born in Kent in 1852 he joined the *H. M. S. Britannia* in 1866 and served as a naval cadet and midshipman in the Royal Navy for 4 years. The lure of the army however proved stronger as affording more opportunities for active fighting, and he joined the 8th Hussars in 1874. Since then he has served in various capacities in the army with ever-increasing honor and recognition. Transferred to the 19th Hussars, he served in Soudan in 1884-85, and saw actions in Abu Klea, Gubat and Metemmeh and was finally made Commander of the same regiment in 1889-93. The next ten years brought him various dignities and he was appointed Major-General to command a cavalry division in Natal in 1899. He was besides principal commander of the troops in operations round Colesberg and culminating in the relief of Kimberley in February 1900. Laterly he was in charge of the cavalry division in Lord Robert's forces throughout the operations ending in the capture of Blomsfontein and Pretoria. He took part in the adventurous capture of Barbeton and was directing the military operation in Cape Colony up to the end of the war.

Such a record of active service has naturally inspired the highest confidence in his capacity for directing the British Expeditionary Force. Sir John has been the hero of many a hair-breadth escapes and adventurous exploits. He was one of the luckless officers at the head of a mere handful of troops who endeavoured to rescue General Gordon. Many a time among the mountain fastnesses of South Africa he has led his hosts in pursuit of Cronje and tracked the lion in his own den. In fact his personal courage and his coolness are assets of inconsiderable value. A follower of Bernhardi's methods he prefers to station himself in the front and keeps the map of the field alike in his head and in his hand. Nothing ever ruffles his temper or disturbs his impertarbability. It has been said of him that "in character he is a man of cold persistence and of fiery energy, cautious and yet audacious, weighing his actions well, but carrying them out with the dash that befits a mounted leader. He is remarkable for the quickness of his decision, alert, resourceful, and determined."

J. A. S. writes in the *Englishman* a happy pen portrait of the Field Marshal which is a telling summary of his characteristics.

> French has grown a good deal greyer since the South African War, but he carries his 62 years with the same vigour as he carried his troops to victory time after time when he was twelve or thirteen years younger. There is a kindly twinkle in his eye. You can fancy him always laughing at a joke in "Pickwick"—a book that never grows old to him. But all over is a picture of pugnacity: the short, thick-set figure, the pugnacious face, the determined mouth and chin. He can be genial and he can be stern. He is always silent—one of those quiet men who make no fuss or noise, but get to their objective.

The Kaiser's phrase "General French's contemptible little army" has provoked the bitterest comment in all quarters. It will certainly not be endorsed by the German General of Cavalry, Friedrich Von Bernhardi, who has a high opinion of General French's abilities. Speaking of Cavalry action in the Transvaal War, and the failure of General Buller to make adequate use of Cavalry, Von Bernhardi says :—

> General French on the other hand, took the opposite stand. Extensive raids around the enemy against his flanks and rear was the principle of his action, and he would have done even more than he did in this direction had not General Roberts repeatedly clipped his wings and held him tight, and had not the horses completely broken down. But the fundamental ideas of his cavalry leading were undoubtedly right, strategically as well as tactically. A warm adherent of cold steel and ever ready to charge, he still knew the full value and importance of the fire-arm, and never hesitated to attack dismounted whenever it suited the case.

That General French is still the man who is "undoubtedly right, strategically as well as tactically," the German army is finding now to its cost.

General Von Moltke.

"Von Moltke's qualities are not of the dazzling order. Bulky and stocky of exterior, with the ungainly outlines of Bismarck, blue-eyed and blondish grey-haired, taciturn to a degree, a famed characteristic of the Mecklenburgers and Schleswig-Holsteiners from which the Moltkes have sprung, the Chief of the General Staff is a man of indomitable force, unfailing candour, and mental capacity more distinguished for sanity than scintillating brilliancy". Such is the description of Lieutenant-General Helmuth Von Moltke whom the Kaiser hastily recalled, on the outbreak of hostilities, from Marienbad, where he had been undergoing a "cure." For eight years this remarkable man, says a writer, has been Chief of the great General Staff of the German Army, and this Campaign on which Germany has embarked will no doubt decide whether General Von Moltke, nephew of the "Organiser of victory" is entitled to his celebrated uncle's other sobriquet "The battle winner". At any rate, the supreme War Lord, the Kaiser and his tremendous legion of officers and men have the highest confidence in his capacity to vindicate the traditions associated with his illustrious namesake.

Born sixty-four years ago Von Moltke has had a variegated career in the German Army. While yet a strippling he won his lieutenancy and Iron Cross in the field in the Franco-Prussian War and after undergoing various grades in the service he was made a Lieutenant General in 1902. On the first of January 1906 Von Moltke succeeded the brilliant soldier Count Von Schlieffen at the General staff, to the surprise of his detractors. He soon showed the mettle he was made and maintained his position as the first man in the Kingdom after the Kaiser. Though like all true soldiers he has been more or less in the background it is an open secret that his powerful initiative and relentless perseverance have been chiefly responsible for the vast military resources of Germany with its abnormal outlay in the very peace establishment of the Army. But for his own desire to prove true to his trade, he would have been the Imperial Chancellor after Prince Bulow.

It is said that his promotion was chiefly due to the Kaiser's partiality for picturesque associations and his growing desire once again to have the magic name of Moltke at the head of the "brains department" of the German Army. But Von Moltke has more than vindicated his capacity for the place. Says the *Daily Mail*:

Detractors were destined to have their scepticism dramatically undermined. Having scoffed at Von Moltke as a decorative figure, they rubbed their eyes over the first "Kaiser manœuvres" held under his auspices before he had been at the General Staff ten months. The great autumn mimic campaign for years past had been distinguished by operations which that often quoted Marshal of France would have called "magnificent, but not war." The Kaiser had an unconquerable passion for thrilling Cavalry charges over bare fields, which would make splendid cinema films, but cost the lives of a division in war.

With the taunts of his rivals ringing in his ears that he was a "Kaiser Staff Chief" pure and simple, Von Moltke's first innovation was ruthlessly to obliterate the picturesque from the autumn manœuvres, and substitute gruelling, practical operations—night fighting, forced marches and all the other trappings of real war. Count Schlieffen who had opposed William II's predilection for pyrotechnics, had finally to leave the General Staff in disfavour. Von Moltke revealing a will of steel, succeeded speedily where his eminent predecessor had failed. His growth in the esteem of the Army was consistent and rapid thenceforth.

But the magic of his name has since ceased to inspire the Kaiser. For the supersession of General Von Moltke in the middle of the campaign is a declaration of the Emperor's dissatisfaction at the way things are going on in the present war. In fact Von Moltke has proved as unscrupulous in his methods as his chief. Belgium and Luxemburg can hardly be thankful for either. The many-sided operations of the German forces since the actual outbreak of the war speak volumes on the multiform energy and versatility of the German Generalissimo. But the Kaiser is a difficult man to serve and in such a time as this no man can be sure of his mind. His plans and strategy have so far failed. The German diaries have so far been falsified and all their prognostications have failed utterly. This might be the cause of the Kaiser's wrath. But in attempting the impossible, the Kaiser has neglected the human element in his strategy and calculations. Moltke's plans are certainly the best, if unscrupulous and as certainly efficient from the German point of view. They are faultless except that they have not succeeded. Time and the progress of events will show how far Moltke has been responsible for them and in the light of history, Moltke will appear as he is.

Fresh, varied and exquisite, as usual, is the bill of fare provided by the * * * *Indian Review*. Mr. G. A. Natesan, the Editor,—also the founder of this excellent and very popular of monthlies which has few serious rivals in India—has cast wide his net and caught therein a galaxy of notable writers who deal most engagingly with the topics of the day.—*New India*, Madras:

General Joffre.

At this hour of peril, all eyes in France are turned to one man, General Joffre, "a great builder of forts and a man to endure all weathers, all possible hardships, and to communicate energy to troops." Mr. Hamilton Fyfe, the Paris correspondent of the *Daily Mail* writes that if France had had a Joffre in 1870, the Germans would not have won. This is the universal verdict of the French nation which looks upon him now as the organiser of victory. France has supreme confidence in her Commander-in-Chief and no one doubts that in General Joffre, she has a man of the right stamp.

General Joffre's past career is a record of brilliant achievements. Born in 1852 in the Pyrenees he saw active service while yet in his teens. For when war was declared in 1870 he had scarcely finished one year at the Polytechnic. At eighteen, therefore, he was given his commission and as an artillery subaltern, took part in the famous defence of Paris during the siege. Even so early in life he attracted attention and was employed in the reconstruction of the French fortifications which followed immediately upon the war. Mr. Fyfe adds that the forts at Eughien were of his designing and soon after he was made a Captain at twenty-two.

The greater part of his career has been spent as a Sapper and in the Turkish Campaign in the Far East, it is said, that he built forts under the direct fire of the Chinese troops. General Joffre was then employed in all the campaigns in French Indo-China. Finally he saw active service round Timbactoo before returning to a command in Paris.

In July 1911 General Joffre was appointed generalissimo of the French Army. The creation of a generalissimo at a time of peace was discountenanced by the then Cabinet which had to resign at the pressure of the new Government which placed General Joffre at the head of the French Army. Joffre is a masterful man and a new life was visible in the army since he took the lead. He is a great organiser and a distinguished mathematician and the sudden and smooth mobilization of the French forces on the outbreak of the present war is the result of his successful arrangements. *Truth* describes him as a man of bourgeois family, very much the mathematician, very much the man of action, and quite as much the man of thought.

The following is a fair pen picture of the man :—

He is sturdy and thick-set of figure. He wears a heavy, white, soldierly moustache, under which gleam strong white teeth that flash when he talks, as if to strengthen his resemblance to a watch-dog. His nose is short and thick and heavy. He has a habit of sharpening the glance of his eyes, always calm and clear, by contracting them and peering grimly from under his heavy eyebrows. In spite of his stoutness he never looks anything but a soldier, even in mufti, though there is a joke against him in the French Army that he has been so much in uniform all his life that he has never mastered the mysteries of civilian dress sufficiently to learn how to keep his tie from climbing up his collar at the back.

Personally General Joffre is a country gentleman of great simplicity of character and living, having had little leisure for amusements and hobbies throughout a strenuous life devoted to the military profession and art. He is characterised as the modern Fabius. In a recent issue of "La Chronigue de Loudre" M Maurice Froyez pays a brilliant eulogy of the General.

General Joffre has profited by the battles of history, and has laid his plans methodically, which will ensure the victory. He deserves to have bestowed upon him the appellation of cunctator like Fabius, the conqueror of Hannibal. Like the Carthagenians of old, the Germans are a danger to the civilised world. Carthage must be destroyed—such was the objective of the Romans. The dismemberment of the German Empire as a measure of safety is the task of Europe to-day. The man who knows how to unite foresight with firmness of mind and of character is he who must lead us to ultimate victory. He has our confidence, and he has deserved it."

The first act of the General in the war is one of stupendous importance and is a source of no little inspiration to the people of France. Nowhere in the world does so much pathos hover over a conquered land as over Alsace-Lorraine, which the cruel war of 1870 separated from France and passed into German hands. The first act of this war is the French conquest of Alsace. Let us quote the splendid words which the Commander-in-Chief addressed to the Alsatian's after the entry of the French troops in Mulhauzan.

Children of Alsace,—After forty-four years of sorrowful waiting, French soldiers once more tread the soil of your noble country. They are the pioneers in the great work of revenge. For them what emotions it calls forth and what pride!

To complete the work they have made the sacrifice of their lives the French nation unanimously urges them on and in the folds of their flag are inscribed the magic words "Right and Liberty." Long live Alsace. Long live France.

No one doubts that this is the augury of French triumph in this great war.

FIELD-MARSHAL SIR JOHN FRENCH.

EARL KITCHENER.

GENERAL HELMUTH VON MOLTKE.

GENERAL JOFFRE.

WINSTON CHURCHILL.

ADMIRAL SIR JOHN JELLICOE.

GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS.

GENERAL VON HOETZENDROF.

GENERAL PUTNIK.

Grand Duke Nicholas.

GRAND Duke Nicholas, the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian Forces now operating against Germany and Austria-Hungary has long been reputed for his military capacity. As long ago as 1877 he was entrusted by the Emperor, his brother Alexander II with the entire management of such an important operation as the invasion of Turkey. With the help of a competent staff of officers he successfully carried out the bombardment of Plevna and brought about the surrender of Osman Pasha. On the 11th of December 1878, the day after the fall of Plevna, after the usual conclusion of the religious ceremony attending the triumph of Russian arms, the Emperor conferred on his brother, the Grand Duke Nicholas, the Grand Cross of the Order of St. George, placing the ribbon on his shoulder with his own hands. This is the greatest military honour that can be bestowed upon a Russian Soldier. Since then the Grand Duke has been known as the greatest commander in the Kingdom of the Czar and led the Russian forces many a time in various parts of the world including the Russian operations in the late Japanese War.

Thus the Grand Duke has seen active war service on several occasions. In peace time he has been in charge of the management of the entire Russian forces and has been distinguished as an excellent drill able to move all the forces of all arms on the parade-ground. In war time he has served in several capacities, sometimes leading his forces in actual command, at other times as Inspector General of the Engineer Corps as in the Russo-Turkish War. His complete mastery of every department of army administration has now come to prominence by the unusual quickness of the Russian mobilisation. At the opening of hostilities it was expected by Germany that Russia would be slow to mobilise and that in the meanwhile a sudden attack on France at the gates of Paris might be brought about before the slow-moving Russian forces could be brought together. But as all the world knows Russia mobilised quickly and ere the Germans had gone half-way in Belgium the Russian steamroller came hurling in numbers at the frontiers of the Fatherland. This is no mean tribute to the genius of the Grand Duke.

The first achievement of the Grand Duke in this war is the capture of Galicia by General Ruzsky.

The Proclamation he issued at Lemberg on September 3 shows the heart of an old patriot fighting for a holy cause.

General Von Hoetzendorf.

The chief of the Austrian General Staff General Baron Komad Von Hoetzendorf is a personality to be reckoned with in the European conflict. In fact it has been believed that he worked more consistently for war than the German Emperor himself. While the aged Emperor Francis Joseph has all the sixty-five years of his reign been working for peace avoiding by all the means in his power to avert any possibility of war there was scarcely a time when his chief of the General Staff refrained from the threat of his big battalions. The soul of the Austrian military party, he urged in 1909 the necessity of an invasion of Servia. In 1910 again he "pushed his preparations for an attack on Italy so far that Count Æhrenthal the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, was compelled to demand his resignation and to ask the Emperor to choose between his constitutional adviser and the irresponsible Chief of General Staff." During the first Balkan War again in the autumn of 1912 he urged the Emperor for a simultaneous attack on Servia and Russia which was fortunately discountenanced by the aged monarch. He thought little of the might of the Servian arm and the success of the Balkan allies having frustrated his fond hopes he "concentrated his attention upon the possibility of a Servian defeat by the Bulgarians in the second war." Such a war-like spirit was entrusted unfortunately with the mission of carrying an olive branch to secure the Roumanean neutrality. No wonder the politico-military mission failed. Since then his calculations were again upset by the Servian defeat of the Bulgar and the Roumanean invasion of Bulgaria.

And now at last he rejoices in the Austro-Hungarian attack upon Servia which he has all along prayed for. His vision of meeting the Cossacks of the autocrat of all the Russias has come to pass. With what result? Mighty as he is in military powers, the little dare devil of a Servia is flinging at his back and the ponderous Russian steam roller is advancing with pitiless fury. The great avalanches of the north are upon him dealing destruction and death upon the historic fields of Austria-Hungary.

General Putnik.

Born sixty years ago in Southern Servia, General Putnik has spent his whole life as a soldier. When still a cadet he went to the Military Academy at St. Petersburg. From there he obtained his commission, proceeded to France and spent many years at the Polytechnic and St. Cyr. On his return home, he obtained an appointment on the Staff and thenceforward he was concerned with the training and reorganisation of the Servian Army. A close student of the Military systems of almost all the European countries he has assimilated and adopted in his own country whatever of value he found among the more advanced of his contemporaries. As the chief of staff and virtual Commander-in-Chief of the Servian Army, General Putnik is now giving his country the benefit of his life-long study. General Putnik leapt to fame by the defeat of the Turks at Kuma Novo which at once revealed to Europe the stuff of which the Servian soldiers are made.

One episode in the present war which strikes a note of medieval chivalry in the aged Emperor of Austria is connected with the name of General Putnik. This is what occurred in the first stage of the rupture between Austria and Servia. We are told that by a corps which wears the aspect of hitting below the belt, the Austrians late on a Saturday night made a prisoner of the Servian Commander and it was only the personal intervention of the Emperor Francis Joseph himself that procured the release. It would certainly have been to their advantage if the Austrian authorities had kept General Putnik in captivity so as to handicap the Servians in the ensuing conflict. The arrest though highhanded would have tended in the desired direction. But the correspondent adds its effect would have been to embitter Slav sentiment within the borders of the Dual Monarchy and no doubt that fact was fully recognised by the Emperor when he issued his order of release.

General Putnik is essentially of a modest and retiring disposition. An accomplished linguist, he speaks five languages fluently and is widely read in military history and general literature. He rarely takes part in politics and is beloved alike among the officers and men of the army. It is to his skill as a strategist and tactician that Servia owed her dramatic and rapid success over the Turks in the War of 1912 and it is to him that she looks forward to her deliverance from the autocracy of the Dual Monarchy.

THE NAVY CHIEFS.

Mr. Winston Churchill.

THE Right Honourable Winston Leonard Churchill the eldest son of the late brilliant Lord Randolph Churchill was born on the 30th November 1874. Though only 40 years of age Mr. Winston Churchill has filled many roles, being successively a soldier, a war correspondent, lecturer, politician and novelist. In his present place as First Lord of the Admiralty, which he has filled for the last three years, he enjoys the entire confidence of his countrymen. Educated at Harrow and Sandhurst he entered the army in 1895 as a Lieutenant in the 4th Hussars; then served with the Spanish Forces in Cuba in 1895, with the Malakand Field Force in 1897, as correspondent of the *Pioneer* (India) and *London Daily Telegraph* and was subsequently attached to the 31st Punjab Infantry, which formed part of Sir Bindon Blood's Force. He took part in all the operations in Bajour and was present at the actions of September 16th and 30th. He next served as orderly officer to Sir William Lockhart with the Tirah Expeditionary Force in 1898. The following year found him in Egypt when Lord Kitchener (then Sirdar) was entering on the final phase—the reconquest of the Soudan. In the Soudan he took part with the 21st Lancer's in the gallant but disastrous charge at the battle of Omdurman. On the outbreak of the Boer War, Mr. Churchill acted as correspondent of the *Morning Post* and in that capacity was captured by the Boers near Chieveley on November 15, 1899, and was sent to Pretoria as a prisoner. Mr. Churchill made his escape from his captors and after a daring and adventurous journey reached Lorenzo Marques and from there proceeded to Cape Town and joined the South African Light Horse as Lieutenant. He was subsequently present at the engagements at Spionkop, Vaal-Krantz, Pietre's Hill and in the operations round Dewetsdorp and was present finally at the occupation of Pretoria in 1900. Mr. Churchill then returned to England and contesting a seat at the General Election of that year he was returned as Junior Member for Oldham in the Conservative interest. He then secured the appointment of a Committee on the National Finances 1902-03, but in the session of 1904 he went over to the Liberals and has ever since devoted his talents to

the Liberal cause. He has strongly opposed any change in the tariff. In December, 1905 he was appointed Colonial Under-Secretary, in Sir Henry Campbell Bannerman's administration, and having been elected for North-West Manchester early in 1906, bore the burden of the acrimonious debates on the Chinese Labour Question in the Transvaal. In the year following, Mr. Churchill paid a visit to British East Africa and in 1908, on his appointment as President of the Board of Trade, he was defeated in Manchester and was returned for Dundee for which city he is now the representative. He supported Mr. Lloyd George in his 1909-10 Budget and denounced the use of the veto by the House of Lords. In 1910, he was appointed Home Secretary during which time he instituted various Prison reforms. As stated before he has been First Lord of the Admiralty since 1911.

As an author he has written several readable books of war and travel and at least one novel.

There is no doubt that in his present position he has won a secure reputation. He has justified his early self-confidence.

Mr. Churchill once said "the time is coming when Lord Randolph Churchill will be chiefly remembered as the father of Winston Churchill."

Has not the First Lord of the Admiralty amply fulfilled his predictions?

Admiral Sir John Jellicoe.

Perhaps the most coveted post in the British Navy and one on which hangs the overlord-hip of British power at this supreme hour in its history is the command of the British fleet in its operations against the German Navy. Admiral Sir John Jellicoe, K.C.B., K.C.V.O., who has been appointed to the post has had a brilliant record of service in the sea to qualify him for this responsible office. Sir John is not as yet fifty-five years of age having been born in December 1859. It has been said that on his appointment all the decks of the Navy displayed something of their whole-hearted admiration for the competence of this quiet, shy, short, little Admiral.

Sir John Jellicoe has filled various important posts at the Admiralty; and has successfully commanded fleets during peace exercises. But to-day he is almost the central figure in the awful drama that has to be played to its grim end in the North Sea. He joined the Navy as a midshipman before he had completed his thirteenth year in 1872. Ten years later he saw war service in the Egyptian Campaign for which he received a medal and the Khedive's Bronzestar. Thenceforward he became the hero of many a thrilling exploits and hair-breadth escapes from which he emerged with a gallantry worthy of the traditions of British Sea Captains.

In 1880 when lieutenant on the *Monarch* he volunteered to rescue the crew of a wrecked Steamer off Gibraltar. The boat in which he and seven others made the attempt was capsized by the heavy seas, and only after a terrific struggle for life did the gallant officer reach the shore. His second escape was from the ill-fated *Victoria* in 1893. Commander Jellicoe, as he then ranked, was in his bunk in a high fever when the collision occurred, but made for his appointed station on the bridge, and, when the ship went down, was towed into safe waters by a gallant midshipman. The Royal Navy College in 1883 awarded him a special prize of £80 and three years later he gained the Board of Trade Silver Medal. In fact before he became lieutenant he had gained three first class certificates of efficiency for the rank. From 1898 to 1901 he served on the China Station and in 1900 during the campaign for the relief of the Pekin Foreign Legations he commanded the Naval Brigade and acted as Chief of the Staff, Vice-Admiral Sir E. Seymour. For his services in China the German Emperor conferred on him the Order of the Red Eagle (2nd class). For two years 1905-1907 he was Director of Naval Ordnance and in the latter year on being promoted to Rear-Admiral he was employed with the Atlantic Fleet. He was also made a K. C. V. O. The next year he was appointed a Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty and Controller of the Navy. After relinquishing this post he had command of two of the most important British Fleets in 1910-11 the Atlantic and in 1912 the Second Squadron of the Home Fleet: Since 1912 he has been Second Sea Lord of the Admiralty. He received his C. B. in 1900 after having been severely wounded at Peitsang and his K. C. B. in 1911. Much of the efficiency of the present Navy is due to his own exertions as controller of the Navy. In leading his fleets to day, he is not only the best craftsman using the best materials, but he is essentially trying his own achievements in the Navy department. He has thus no small share in shaping the instrument he now commands. The Admiralissimo is thus not only the complete master in matters of strategy and tactics, learned in the course of many a strenuous year of experience but is equally associated in the creation and equipment of the British Home Fleets on which so largely depend the fortunes of the Empire.

Admiral Boue De Lapeyrere.

Admiral Boue de Lapeyrere who is now in command of the entire French fleet was born sixty-one years ago in South-west of France. He is a typical naval officer, is extremely popular with his subordinates and is accounted to be of an active and energetic disposition. Nearly the whole of the French naval forces are at present concentrated in the Mediterranean Sea, Great Britain guaranteeing, so to say, the defence of the Northern and Western Coast of France. But when the time comes for a decisive issue in the Southern waters, it is never doubted that the leadership of the French Navy is in good and capable hands.

In fact for a long time past the French fleet has had few opportunities to gauge its own capacity. No such trial has as yet presented itself. But Admiral Lapeyrere alone among the French Naval Commanders has in the course of his thirty years' service in the navy, seen active service. This was when he was a young Commander in charge of a flotilla of armed cruisers at the battle of Foo Chow in China. He distinguished himself, it is said, in this engagement by his courage and initiative, himself leading the attacking party when boarding a Chinese gun-boat. He has besides, held important commands in many waters—the Far-east, the Baltic, the Mediterranean, the Atlantic and Iceland.

Admiral Dewa.

Admiral Shigeto Dewa who is now in command of the Japanese fleet operating against Kiau-Chau is a naval fighter of considerable repute. Born at Aidzu in December, 1855, he graduated from the Naval Academy in 1882, was promoted lieutenant in 1884, and Vice-Commander of Takao in 1885. He was then called for service in the Japan-China war which won him the Golden Kite. In 1899, he was chief of the committee ordered to England to bring home the cruiser *Tokiwa*. In the Boxer-trouble he was Commander of the *Asama* and in 1900, was promoted Rear Admiral Commanding the Sasebo standing squadron. He was afterwards transferred as chief of construction of the Yokosuka Naval Station and next as chief of the department of Naval Education. He distinguished himself in the Russo-Japanese war commanding the 3rd squadron of the Japanese fleet. Admiral Dewa has been Commander of the 1st squadron since 1911.

Admiral Von Tirpitz.

It has been universally admitted that the final test of German supremacy will be fought on the sea. When that test comes about, and German and British fleets face each other dealing destruction the man above all in Germany whose life-work will be weighed in fine is the Grand Admiral Alfred Von Tirpitz, Secretary of State for the Navy since 1898 and the designer of the German Naval Law. Born sixty-four years ago in Kustin he was educated at the Modern-side Gymnasium at Frankfort. He entered the German Navy as a cadet in 1865 and after a wide experience at sea was made in 1891 Chief of the Baltic Station in which capacity he did much to create the torpedo service. Appointed Secretary of State towards the end of 1897 he became Vice Admiral in 1899. Since then he has been the virtual head of the entire Naval force of the Empire.

Far more than the Kaiser himself Von Tirpitz is the virtual creator of the modern German fleet and with it will fall or stand his own name and fame. Ever since 1891 when he took command of the gigantic Keil Station he has fought unceasingly for the building of an enormous fleet raising the naval expenditure of Germany from £ 6,000,000 per annum in 1898 to £ 23,000,000 in 1913. The admiral is a profound admirer of the British Navy which he has always held up as a model to his own officers and men. A firm believer in the "mailed fist" he has tempted his War Lord to put his fleet to Sea and try the might of his arm on sea as on land.

Von Tirpitz is perhaps the most outstanding figure in the circle of the Kaiser's chosen counsel. Tall and stately with a flowing and reverend beard the grand admiral is an arresting personality and one cannot easily forget the impress of his figure. One of the characteristic pictures of the Kaiser is the well known posture of Napoleon with the chiefs of his Military and Naval Commanders on either side. As the maker of the modern German Navy and a chosen counsel of the Emperor his virile personality and influence have almost shadowed the fame of the other members of the Naval Staff. Now that war has broken out the highest confidence is reposed in his capacity to lead the German Naval Fleet which are yet bottled up in the Kiel Canal.

GRAND ADMIRAL VON TIRPITZ.
Secretary of State for the German Navy.

ADMIRAL DEWA.
Commanding the Japanese Fleets.

ADMIRAL BOUE DE LAPEYRERE,
Commanding the French Fleets.

TWO GERMAN PROFESSORS JUSTIFYING THE WAR.

ERNEST HAECKEL.

RUDOLF EUCKEN.

WAR AND LITERATURE

BY PROF. J. C. ROLLO, M. A.,

(Principal, Pachiappa's College.)

THE subject suggested by this title is not primarily the literature of war, though it includes this. I wish to think of war as the great creator—the creator not merely of peace, of civilisation, of fit balance of power, of imperial unity, but also of all that is finest and most enduring in art and particularly in literature. This is not, perhaps, the most natural time to deal with such a theme. When the curtain has fallen upon a Shakespearian tragedy, and with passions roused and purified the spectator is left to ponder its import, he may be able to see its mighty consolations—the worth of the virtue that death cannot destroy, the larger hope that emerges from the tragically ended struggle. But we cannot expect the people of the play, in the hour of their suffering, to have this vision; nor does it come to the spectator till he is soothed by the calm of the conclusion. We are all closely identified, in one way or another, with the war that is now at its height; and it is difficult to look away to the future of which it assures us. Yet it is worth while to endeavour to forget for a while the destructive forces that touch us all, and to think of what this war too will *make*, and is already making.

So terrible, of course, is the price of the gains of war, that every wise nation will preserve peace whenever it is righteously possible, and will continue to hold peace as its ideal. Further, we may say that nowadays a war into which a nation does not enter *reluctantly* is unlikely to prove in the highest sense a creative war. Yet we cannot but realise the impotence of a peace too long continued. Inevitably a nation that is left too long secure degenerates. Its energy declines; its virtue becomes introspective, and therefore weakens; its culture, no longer stimulated by resisting force, becomes less vigorous, and loses relation with morality; its art becomes self-conscious, and at length refines itself away. Ruskin's words on this matter are vehement, but not unconsidered.—"The common notion," he says, "that peace and the virtues of civil life flourished together, I found to be wholly untenable. Peace and the vices of civilised life only flourish together. We talk of peace and learning, and of peace and plenty, and of peace and civilisation; but I found that those were not the words which the Muse of History coupled together; that, on her lips, the words were—peace, and sensuality—peace, and selfishness—peace, and death. I found, in brief, that all great nations learned their truth of word, and strength of thought, in war; that they were nourished by war, and wasted by peace; taught by war, and deceived by peace; trained by war, and betrayed by peace; in a word, that they were born in war, and expired in peace."

These are strong words, but they were inspired by a careful study not only of the history, but of the causes, of human happenings. Nor is it difficult for us to discover why these things are so. There are two matters that are of prime importance in life. One is vital energy, and the other is the control, the concentration, of that energy. Now, peace does indeed protect from outside interference such energy as a nation may possess. It creates a sphere within which virtue may act unimpeded, and material resources (which are instruments of energy) may multiply and become complex. It gives that security in which artistic energy may express itself in more and more perfect form. But peace can neither create energy nor prevent its decline. It has always needed a strong stimulus to provoke mankind to decisive formative action; and the deadliest enemy, whether of virtue or of art, is ease. If a country is roused by war just before ease has become sloth, and virtue has become convention, and vice born of sloth has begun to eat away even conventional virtue, that country may well hail war as its deliverer; and even when degeneration has gone further, war, being the healer as well as inspirer, may still deliver. War heals the diseases and irritations caused by force that has had no outlet. It unites the divided in devotion to its own single idea. The selfishness that was born of security is turned to sacrifice. Men who for lack of conflict have become feeble and purposeless begin to live again when conflict rouses them.

War, then, can produce energy where in peace one might despair of finding it. And where energy already exists, war intensifies and ennobles it. Peace has its courage, for example, but courage becomes a different thing when the alternatives before it are achievement on the one hand, and death on the other. The sight of present and menacing death is both man's greatest test and his greatest inspiration. Here at length pretences and disguises are torn away; and men, being face to face with reality, are themselves revealed as they really are. Friendships in peace may be true, and of subtle sympathy; but they are not tried and steeled as are the grim, incomparable friendships of war. Endurance, determination, perseverance, obedience—these are virtues whose excellence depends on "what's resisted". They are made perfect when war's supreme hardship and peril is opposed to them.

It is perfectly true, then, that war is "the school of virtue". And it is equally clear that while peace, with its multitude of eligible ends, with its rivalry of sheltered ideals, tends to dissipate energy and uselessly expend it, war, on the other hand, directs and concentrates it. Sovereign duty delivers her convert from the unchartered freedom that has tired him; and by the discipline to which he willingly yields himself he is made both wise and strong. By this influence, then, which acts directly or indirectly upon the whole people, war brings fitness for those high achievements for which peace, when it returns, will give safety and leisure.

Of course it is not all war of which this can be said. A war of brutal aggression, being false in its very nature, will not tend to produce the beautiful or the true. The wars conducted in old times by means of foreign mercenaries were stimulating neither to the mercenaries nor to the States they served; and, similarly, in modern times, if a nation at war depends merely upon a standing army, that nation's vitality will simply be impaired by the struggle. But when the fight is the nation's own, touching and trying it at every point in its life—when the fight is for freedom and justice, and every citizen, directly or indirectly, by positive effort or by self-denial, is taking his part—then we have real war, and war's real awakening.

Now, literature is the finest product of the stimulated and disciplined energy of a nation. It must on the one hand be full of life, and on the other hand it must be art, restrained by the limits of form. Thus war, being both the producer and the discipliner of energy, is the great preparation for literature; and this may be illustrated by considering any great period of literary creation.

The most striking example of all is the golden age of Athens. The Peisistratid tyrants had done their best to rouse the arts in Athens to peaceful life, and they had indeed succeeded in creating a *taste* for that which is fine in art, and in diffusing culture. They even left certain noble monuments of art behind them—when the Athenians, by the very act of casting out these "tyrants," fitted themselves for nobler creation. Ere she could attain real creativeness Athens needed, first, that hard-won freedom; for, as Herodotus suggests, then only can a nation be truly vigorous when every citizen is conscious of his own right and duties in the commonwealth. The struggle for individual independence was not of less vital value to the Athenians than the independence itself, once gained. But Athens needed yet a further enlivening, disciplining struggle ere her great literature could be born—the heroic fight with Persia. "It is a remarkable fact," says Muller, "that Athens produced her most excellent works in literature and art in the midst of the greatest political convulsions and of her utmost efforts for self-preservation or conquest." We may say, then, that it was through Marathon that Athens found herself. The struggle was so heroic in the courage, the devotion, the unity, that characterised it, that for many years the Athenian spirit remained at that heroic level, and found expression in every form of heroic art. Just as the war had been every citizen's affair, so now literature (and principally dramatic literature) was every citizen's affair. There has never been a time when a people were so truly identified with their art, which was born of their own energy, dominated by their own ideals, and submitted at every turn to their own unerring judgment. The poets themselves were in the closest touch with war. Æschylus betook himself from poetry to fight both at Marathon and at Salamis; and we are told that there he found himself equally in his element. The spirit of the fight informs not only his war-dramas but all his work, and especially his presentment of that grander struggle waged by Prometheus against still greater odds, and for the sake of all mankind. Æschylus, with his passionate energy, his large utterance, his delight in all that is mightiest among both gods and men, is pre-eminently the dramatist bred to war. Sophocles was too young to fight

even at Salamis, but when the Paean was sung to celebrate that victory, the boy Sophocles was leader of the chorus. He, as well as Æschylus, belonged to Salamis and all that Salamis meant. Thus in the purer and more subtle harmonies of his art he is preserved from any hint of decadence. He too was a citizen of that free and strenuous Athens; and, though so much more restrained, so much more deliberately artistic than Aeschylus, he was scarcely less virile. The Athens of these men had attained in the Persian struggle that spirit of freedom that is identical with the spirit of law and duty; and their work is its ideal expression. Their successor, Euripides, wrote in a degenerating Athens, when the great impulse was almost spent. He was a student, out of touch with battles. Thus the sane and whole-hearted vigour of the earlier time was not for him, and he was undefended against doubt, sentimentality, exaggeration, artifice, while even the morality of his plays is decadent. There was no second Marathon to save him. War there was in his time, but not a people's united effort for freedom—only the grim unproductive struggle for domination. Hence the flagging, the misdirection, the dissipation, of his power.

Were we to trace the causes of the great productive energy of the Elizabethan time, we should find them complex enough. But undoubtedly the prime source of that energy was England's newly-won religious and national freedom, and the spirit of the struggle that won it. As in the case of the Greek drama, the presence of this spirit is evidenced both by direct expression of it and by its stimulating influence in general. Again and again it finds direct expression in Shakespeare:—

> Come the three corners of the world in arms,
> And we shall shock them. Naught shall make us rue,
> If England to itself do rest but true.

England was indeed as true to itself when those words were written as it is proving to-day. But there have been intervening periods when the lethargy that is treachery to a nation's truth has prevailed. There was that slumbrous eighteenth century when nothing stirred us and therefore we made little that is first-rate. Then the revolutionary conflict in France, which was the world's conflict too, aroused England, and poetry was born again.

While every form of literature derives energy from war, there are certain forms that are entirely created by it, and the finest of these is the war-song, which is pure lyric in its varied expression of the moods of war. It may be alive with the spirit of the charge, or grim with the resolution of a hard and doubtful day, or wistful in its dream of a remembered home. The Spartan Tyrtaeus will always be thought of as the prince of war singers. When in the course of a campaign the Spartans gathered round the evening meal, they rivalled each other in the recitation of his war-like elegies. And when they went to battle they sang, to the music of the flute, his *embateria*, his marching songs. To the Spartans fighting and poetry were expressions of the same spirit. Before the fight it was to the *Muses* that they sacrificed; for to the Muses both fervour and order belong.

It would not be difficult to trace the influence of war upon the lyric in general, and upon all important literary forms. We may refer, for example, to the epic. The phrase "an epic of peace" would indeed be a contradiction in terms. The Homeric epics are the offspring of a people whose very life was war and wandering. The *Iliad* is of course the ideal epic of war. It does not moralise war, or sentimentalise it, but simply reveals it, with living delight and sympathy, not extenuating, not interpreting. The picture is just and complete, representing life in the truth and fulness of conflict, and therefore at its highest power. Heroism triumphs and tastes defeat; there are mighty antagonisms and mighty friendships; there is the zest of strenuous life, and there is also (by no means unregarded, yet unsentimentalised, and lightly and delicately touched as befits the vitality of the people and the poem) the bitterness of death in an alien country. There is no pathos like that of Homer, for it is utterly unaffected, and its "restraint" is not a matter of deliberate control but of the dominance of vital impulse. There is nothing to prune away in the *Iliad*, for its very energy means sanity and truth. The *Odyssey*, though not directly a poem of war, is born of the same spirit. Heroes whom we have known in war are still engaged in strife, though not now with fellow-warriors but with giants, or with enchantments, or with the malevolent elements—and they struggle in the same undaunted way. At every point in these poems—even in the most fairy-tale-like parts of the *Odyssey*—we are in touch with that bracing reality that the warrior-life implies.

In the *Æneid*, Virgil tells his unconvincing war-story (with its pacific and politic intention) in the form created by the genuine war-story of Homer, and the form takes rather unkindly to the new spirit. The excellence of Virgil's work

—such matters as the "brooding pity," so eloquently spoken of by Mr. Mackail, which is indeed the finest thing in Virgil—is appropriate rather to elegy than to epic. But in seeking to laud and vindicate the power of Rome, Virgil could think of no other theme than the warlike story of its founding; and the immeasurable inferiority of his work, as epic, is largely due to the fact that the poet himself was wholly and undisturbedly a man of peace. As for the *Divine Comedy*, that too is an epic of strife, on a far vaster scale—the strife, it might be called, of divine law with man's false and futile imaginings. All the wars of nations are but elements in that universal conflict, which was revealed to us not by the gracious, peacefully-polished courtier-sonneteers of Milan or Verona, but by the man who fought at Campaldino and whose life-conflict led him to bitter exile. But above all might one speak of Milton—first of his retired and studious youth and the exquisite and untroubled melody of his verse before his country called him; and then of the awakening without which *Paradise Lost*, as we have it, could never have come into being. When the strife had arisen to which he gave himself body and soul, he was for other than those delicate and gentle measures, which might be well for "vulgar amorists", but no longer suited the defender of his faith and of freedom. It is unnecessary to enlarge upon the fact—so obvious is it—that *Paradise Lost* is wrought of the very fabric of war, that all the force of the poet's nature, tried and hardened as it is by service to his own militant cause, has entered into his conception of that first conflict, and chiefly into his Satan, who is incarnate hatred and defiance of oppressive absolutism, and whose energy dominates the poem.

One cannot help believing that the present convulsion will mean new life to the literature of England. Certainly that literature desperately needs reviving. Men have begun to speak openly of the springs of poetry as permanently exhausted. Mr. Gosse has expressed his doubt whether it will ever be possible to create anything really fresh and new in poetry. In dearth of matter and impulse men have spent their powers upon an irritating perfection of uninspired artistry. We have a Poet Laureate whose works are exquisite samples of Greek style emasculated—or such a style as would have been Greek had there been no Marathon. Even artistry has begun to pall, however; and it has become a fashion to make forlorn attempts to *shock* the reader into interest, whether by a realism that constantly impinges upon vulgarity, or by rhythms so novel and striking as to be altogether unlovely, or by desperate and resolute illegitimacy of phrase. All this has appeared necessary because we have lacked the force, the faith, the sense of reality, which it lies in war's power to restore to us. As for our drama, its most characteristic type is that (so common in the work of Mr. Shaw and Mr. Galsworthy) in which a vexatious problem of contemporary life is deliberately presented and left without hint of solution, the dramatist in effect thrusting its inconclusiveness at us, with the remark, "There is one of the results of your present-day civilisation; there is *no* solution unless you first reconstruct the whole scheme." This sort of thing is, of course, hopelessly inartistic and undramatic; for a living drama must possess not only universality but also a certain conclusiveness of its own.

But as we feel the quickening influence of this struggle, and as we look back upon the past and the law of re-inspiration that it reveals to us, a certain confidence in the future of our literature returns. Nor shall we ever be inclined to say, if the years approve that confidence, that such gain is not well worthy even of such cost.

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PRIZE COURTS AND PRIZE LAW

BY

MR. K. SUBBA REDDI, Bar.-at-Law.

THE origin of Prize Courts is clouded in much obscurity and takes us back far into the dark ages which followed the break up of the Holy Roman Empire. Then nations as well as individuals found themselves once more in that original state of warfare which the philosopher Hobbes has drawn up in such lurid colours. Pirates of all nationalities loomed large over the high seas. The North Sea and the Baltic were especially infested with the piratical vessels of the Danes, while all navigation in the Mediterranean Sea was well nigh rendered impossible by the Greek and Saracen buccaneers. To protect themselves against the depredations of these nefarious sea-robbers the mediæval merchantmen associated into a band under an elected admiral and occasionally sent out in advance an armed fleet to clear the seas of the prowling pirates. Their vessels and goods were captured and divided among the captors according to the decision of the admiral. But this kind of uncontrolled private enterprise laid the admirals open to grave temptations and involved their Sovereigns in many a diplomatic difficulty. The maritime States of Europe consequently felt the need for some efficient authority to coerce the marauding propensities of their subjects. Private vessels were thenceforth obliged to furnish themselves with letters patent or letters of Marque from the Sovereign of a maritime State and their captures had to be adjudged legitimate by a court established by such Sovereign. In England the Court of Admiralty, which till then exercised what was called instance or ordinary jurisdiction, began to exercise prize jurisdiction as well. After the Reformation the Admiralty Court held distinct sittings for prize business and the records of such business were also kept distinct. Special commissions began to be issued at the beginning of every war, requiring the judge of the Admiralty Court to hear prize cases while the ordinary commissions made no mention of it. The Prize Court thus became almost entirely distinct from the Instance Court. But the Naval Prize Act of 1864 permanently gave to the Court of Admiralty the jurisdiction of a Prize Court throughout His Majesty's dominions. Yet the distinction between the two jurisdictions is still kept up, for while appeals from the Instance Court lie to the House of Lords, appeals from the Prize Court still go to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Distinctions such as these have given rise to a serious misunderstanding as to the character of the Prize Courts and the nature of the law which they administer. Both Lord Mansfield and Lord Stowell, than whom the English Admiralty Court has known no better judges, have repeatedly thrown out that the law which the English Prize Courts administered was International Law. Lord Stowell in particular has laid down in the Case of Recovery (1807): "It is to be recollected that this is a Court of the law of nations though sitting here under the authority of the King of Great Britain. It belongs to other nations as well as to our own, and what foreigners have a right to demand from it is the administration of the law of nations simply and exclusively of principles borrowed from our own Municipal jurisprudence." Nor are there wanting international lawyers of great repute who hold the same view. But with due deference to these high authorities we are constrained to maintain that their view answers more to what Prize Courts and Prize Law ought to be than to what they really are. The attempt made at the establishment of an International Prize Court during the sitting of the Second Hague Conference confirms our view. A Prize Court is simply the Court of the captor's country, and the law it administers is the law of its country, in other words, the Municipal law based on the customs, statutes and other regulations of the said country. It is undoubtedly true that every State is bound to enact for the guidance of its Prize Courts such statutes and regulations only as conform to the generally accepted principles of International Law, and any flagrant departure therefrom on the part of a State may give rise to serious international disputes which sometimes end in war and bloodshed. Nevertheless such international principles, how-

ever well accepted they be, form only the basis of the law administered in the National Prize Courts. These Courts derive their authority as the law which they administer its sanction from the Sovereign of the country to which they belong. It has been for a long time a well recognised rule of International Law that every maritime State should, at least during the time of war, institute a Court or Courts to decide the legitimacy of the capture of a prize whether made by its public vessels or by privateers. The term "prize" is applied to the property of a belligerent captured at sea. Hence before any captured vessel be appropriated by the captor it is necessary that it should be adjudged lawful prize by a competent Prize Court. The institution of a Prize Court is therefore essential for safeguarding the interests of neutrals whose vessels, and more especially goods, may otherwise be subjected to indiscriminate capture and appropriation or destruction. But though in every case of capture the rights of several neutrals, in addition to those of the two belligerents, are involved, yet they are adjudged upon by a National Court presided over by an ordinary judge appointed by the captor's State. It is to obviate this defect that a Convention was drafted for the establishment of an International Prize Court at the full sitting of the Second Hague Conference on 21st September 1907, and adopted by all the States present with but one solitary exception. It is also the ardent desire to rectify this defect that has betrayed many eminent lawyers and judges into the error which we have above referred to. This error is the more glaring since the institution of a Prize Court is considered an act of sovereignty, an act so intimately bearing on the relation between two belligerent States that it would be a breach of neutrality on the part of a neutral State to allow the institution of a Prize Court on its own territory.

The present Prize Law is but the fag end of a system which once enjoyed a very wide sway in the Middle Ages. Wars were then fought on the principle of solidarity which established the relation of enemies not only between the contending States but also between their respective subjects. The artificial notion, moreover, of a ship as floating territory was not yet reached and the result was that all the property of enemy subjects, whether on board enemy or neutral vessels, could be seized and condemned by a belligerent. The rules that then prevailed in practice were formulated in the Consolato del Mar, a code of Maritime Law that at one time enjoyed general acceptance in the Mediterranean Sea. The essence of these rules was that enemy property, whether ship or cargo, was capturable, while neutral property, whether ship or cargo, was free. This system was, however, not adopted at once by all the littoral States of Europe. Long during the Middle Ages England did not accept that neutral property in enemy ships was free, while still further in the same direction she acted on the principle that neutral property, whether ship or cargo, was tainted by companionship with enemy property and could be accordingly condemned as if it were enemy property. The Dutch, on the contrary, the large extent of whose carrying trade pointed to a less stringent policy, headed the liberal movement and strictly followed the rules of the Consolato del Mar. By the end of the 16th century it succeeded in persuading England to act in a line with it. During the last two decades of the 18th century the Baltic Powers confederated themselves into the so-called armed neutralities and adopted the principle "Free ships and free goods". We seem to see here the hand of the fiction of the floating territory. England, however, persistently refused to recognise this innovation which for over half-a-century formed a bone of contention between her and the Northern States. During the Crimean War England had to relax her stubbornness that it might act in concord with her allies, and at the Declaration of Paris, 1856, the principle received the concurrence of all the Great Powers of Europe and has since been adhered to by all the Powers of the world. The United States of America, which refused to become a party to the Declaration, wished to go a step further and exempt all enemy property as such from capture and condemnation. Several States had before, and have since, concluded treaties to this effect, and in the war of 1866 Prussia, Austria and Italy acted on it. In the Franco-German war of 1870, Prussia tried to follow the more liberal policy, but unfortunately had to drop the attempt as she was not reciprocated by her enemy. In the gigantic war that is at present devastating the continent of Europe the practice of capture prevails, thus crippling trade in a greater portion of the globe. Though this practice has not wanted warm supporters among eminent international lawyers, especially of the English school, yet in the cause of humanity, we venture to raise a note of dissent and hope that the generous efforts of the United

States will in no distant future be crowned with success. Humanitarian considerations have fortunately so far prevailed already as to exempt certain species of enemy property from capture or appropriation. The personal effects of the Captain and crew of a captured vessel are not condemned as lawful prize. Fishermen employed in coast-fishing likewise enjoy wide immunities both for themselves and their property such as boats and tackle, provided they are not likely to be engaged in warlike employments such as scouting, signalling or carrying arms. Expeditions sent out for purposes of science, art, religion or humanity are immune from interference on the ground of enemy character. Merchantmen compelled by Vis Major to seek shelter in an enemy's harbour must also be granted an immunity from capture.

There are several points of Prize Law which we have not yet touched. We have hitherto spoken of enemy property as such and have traced how neutral property has gradually escaped from the fate attending enemy property with which it happened to be associated and how a neutral vessel has even been allowed to throw its mantle of freedom over the enemy cargo it covered. Now we come to consider the conditions under which neutral cargo and even neutral vessels may be captured and condemned. These conditions have to be studied under the subjects of blockade and contraband of war which are in a remarkable state of fluidity. With the different conditions under which different States consider a blockade to exist, with the difference between conditional contraband and absolute contraband and with the extraordinary divergence in the practice of various States as to what articles constitute contraband of war, we cannot within the narrow compass of this short essay concern ourselves. It is enough for our present purpose if we say that a blockade to be considered genuine must be *effective* and that articles of *direct* use for warlike purposes can alone constitute contraband of war. We will not even attempt the almost impossible task of fixing the meaning of the words effective and direct, but will pass on to consider the fate of the vessel that runs a blockade or carries contraband of war. The penalty for a breach of blockade is generally the confiscation of both the ship and its cargo. However, the cargo will be saved where its owner is different from that of the ship and can prove that he was ignorant at the time of shipment that the port of destination was under blockade. When a ship carrying contraband of war is captured, it is the common, though by no means universal, practice to take the vessel to the port of the captor where the articles of contraband are duly condemned by a competent Prize Court. The fate of the vessel itself and of any innocent articles which it may carry hangs upon the guilt or innocence of their owners. The difference between violating blockade and carrying contraband of war is thus plain. In the one case the guilt is primarily that of the peccant vessel, in the other it is that of the prohibited cargo.

Lastly, a word about prize-money. During the Middle Ages, when privateers started on their own account and made captures of enemy ships and enemy goods, the captured property was appropriated between the captors. But, as we have seen above, these privateers very often degenerated into pirates and their respective Sovereigns found it necessary to exercise some control over them. As a result of this State control the rights of the privateers as to the captures they made varied according to the temperament of their Sovereigns. A queen like Elizabeth or a despot like Cromwell could not be expected to be over-generous to the captors. The more liberal kings that followed were less grasping and once more the claims of the captors assumed their original dimensions. But since the Declaration of Paris privateering in its pristine condition has fallen into disuse. Now captured enemy vessels and goods, after being condemned by a competent Prize Court, become the property of the belligerent State whose forces made the capture. However, the State generally effects a sale of the prize, and a part, if not the whole of the proceeds, are distributed among the officers and crew who made the capture. This is called prize-money and must be distinguished from salvage, called also prize-salvage, which is given to those who *re-capture* the vessels or goods of neutrals, allies or those belonging to compatriots. The former is in the nature of a share in the spoils of the enemy, the latter a reward for good offices rendered to a friend. There is again the money due on a ransom bill executed by the Master of a captured vessel. A hostage is generally demanded by the captor to ensure due payment of the bill and the vessel is then set free. This bill is indirectly made effective by the right of action which the hostage has in the Courts of his own country against the Master and the owners of the ship and cargo for the due performance by them of the contract under which their property was restored to them.

CIVILISATION AND WAR

BY MR. ARTHUR MACDONALD

Author of "Man and Abnormal Man".

ACCORDING to geology and prehistoric anthropology, man was a savage hundreds of thousands of years and war was almost a normal condition with him. The world has been civilized only five or six thousand years and civilization is necessarily on the surface of human nature. But this does not lessen the importance of civilization, nor does it lessen the belief in the probability of its eventually preventing all wars. For civilization, though its foundation may be comparatively shallow, can nevertheless suppress or cover up man's deep-seated savagery, causing it to remain dormant and can also avoid those conditions which tend to develop the war feeling.

Looking at modern civilized man from a scientific point of view, he exceeds all others in criminality; he kills not only his own species, which the animals rarely do, but beings of all other species; those which it is not an advantage to kill he subjects to slavery. The egotism of the human species surpasses that of all others. The basis of this egotism and selfishness is a combination of psychic and physical force, not moral force.

While I believe fully in a universal peace which in the future development of society I hope will be permanently established, yet in order to be prepared for and understand the great difficulties to be overcome to attain such an end, it is well to look straight at and not ignore certain very unwelcome facts. At present the idea of war still remains in the whole human race. Modern Europe, where the highest civilization exists, has millions of men trained for war, while Rome with her vast empire had only three hundred thousand legionaries, and this is the state of the world which at present is in its commercial glory, and yet in the face of this it is claimed that commerce and war are antagonists. But it is said that war has the advantage of purging the race.

To better the race by means of war could be accomplished much more effectively through physical disease, for the lowest strata are pre-eminently the sufferers, while in war much of the best blood of the nations is sacrificed, and physical weaklings are left at home to reproduce their kind and later many weakened, wounded or diseased return. The savage instinct of murder is still deeply rooted. War is an extension and development of universal homicide. In primitive time it was terrible in character exceeding the ferocity of the wildest beasts; in the next stage of development one did not eat his enemy but mutilated and tortured him, and now modern civilized war is the same in essence though different in form, for inventive genius is at present exerting itself to its utmost to discover how to kill and mutilate the enemy at great distances, and it seems to have succeeded. While we look with horror upon the cannibals, the words of Montaigne are not inapplicable when he said that "It is more barbarous to kill a live man than to roast and eat a dead one."

As is well known in Europe, there has been for a long time a general belief that such a war as the present one would occur. Had it been deferred until later, it might have been still more terrible than it is. While a student in European Universities some twenty years ago, I was frequently told by thinking ones that it was only a question of time before a general war was sure to come.

Of course, no one can tell the probable outcome of the war. But it seems to me that one of the possible results may be a general disarmament of all nations, and perhaps it may be caused by two very different methods: first, by impressing the enormous evils of war so strongly upon the people as to make them willing to agree to it; and, second, that those who may be victorious can compel the vanquished as one condition of surrender to agree to the general disarmament of *all* the belligerents. It may be that this is the only practical way—that is, by force to accomplish such result. The present war shows clearly that to have a big navy and big army is no guarantee of peace at all, as is so often claimed. We hear much about the destruction of European militarism, and we would that it might be accomplished. We would also at the same time that World Navalism, which makes the war feeling still more extensive, could also be destroyed or reduced to a minimum.

THE GERMAN EMPEROR AND HIS SIX SONS ON THE MARCH.

GENERAL VON KLUCK.
The German Commander who made the sensational march to Paris.

GENERAL SIR DOUGLAS HAIG.
The British General Commanding the First Army Corps.

FIGHTERS IN THE FRONT

SIR SMITH DORRIEN.

General Sir H. L. Smith-Dorrien, G.C.B., who has been the recipient of the highest praise at the hands of Sir John French, has taken part in practically all the British engagements since 1878. Sir Horace was appointed to command the Second Army Corps on the sudden death of General Grierson on the eve of hostilities. He was appointed to the office on the special recommendation of Lord Kitchener. How well the war minister's choice has been justified is evident from the following. In his historic despatch, Sir John French after describing General Smith Dorrien's resistance on the 26th says :—

I cannot close the brief account of this glorious stand of the British troops without recording my deep appreciation of the valuable services of General Sir Horrace Smith-Dorrein. I say without hesitation that the saving of the left wing of my army on the morning of the 26th could never have been accomplished unless a Commander of rare unusual coolness, intrepidity, and determination had been present personally to conduct the operation.

Sir Horace has thus saved half the British Army in the terrible fighting round Mons. In fact this distinguished Officer has been in the thick of the fighting wherever there has been any during the past thirty-five years. Beginning with the Zulu War in 1879, he has served in the Egyptian war, the Nile Expedition, the Soudan Campaign, the Chitral and Tirah Expeditions and the Nile Expedition of 1898. In the South African War he commanded a Brigade and then a Division. Nine-tenths of his service has been passed in India and it was at Quetta that he built the first Soldier's Club that the Army has ever known. Since then he has been in command at Aldershot and is one of the most popular of British Generals. He is an eloquent speaker and a facile writer and can give and take knocks better than the best soldier in the field.

Lieut.-General Sir Douglas Haig.

Lieutenant-General Sir Douglas Haig, Commander of the first Army Corps in Sir John French's Expeditionary Force, is the veritable embodiment of all that is meant by the expression "cavalry dash." He is now fifty-three years of age and has been General Officer Commanding at Aldershot since 1912. His previous career fitted him for this enviable post and being a soldier after Sir John French's heart, he commands a brilliant force of army in the present war. In 1885, he joined the 7th Hussars, served in the Soudan campaign in 1898, being present at Atbara and Omdurman for which he received his brevet majority. He went through the South African War first as D. A. A. G. for cavalry in Natal, then as Chief Staff Officer to General French and finally he commanded a group of columns for which he was promoted Brevet Colonel. He then became A. D. C. to the King and received the King's and Queen's medals. Nor was his work confined to two continents. In 1903, he was made Inspector-General of Cavalry in India and three years hence was appointed Director of Military Training and Chief of Staff in India from which he took up his command in Aldershot. Thus from post to post he was promoted with increasing reputation. Some years ago he married the Hon. Dorothy Vivian, one of the maids of honour to Queen Alexandra. As a mark of Royal favour the marriage was celebrated in the private Chapel at Buckingham Palace in the presence of the King and Queen. Sir Douglas is believed to be a scientific soldier and is the author of a book, "Cavalry Tactics." Though a masterful man he is exceedingly popular with his men who are proud to march with him to the tune of "Death or Glory Boys." As has been expected Sir Douglas has so distinguished himself in the present war that he has since been made General in Sir John French's Expeditionary Force.

SIR PHILIP CHETWODE.

Brigadier-General Sir Philip Chetwode commanded the fifth Cavalry Brigade, which was according to Sir John French's despatch of September 7th, 1914, posted at Binche, on the extreme British right at the beginning of the combined operations. On August 28th, the Brigade fought a brilliant action with the German Cavalry in the course of which the 12th Lancers and Royal Scots Greys routed the enemy and speared large numbers in flight. Sir John French says that the forward reconnoissance conducted by Sir Philip Chetwode in conjunction with Major-General Allenby did excellent work on the 22nd and 23rd of August. The combined forces "penetrated as far as Soignies. They showed to great advantage in their encounters besides bringing information from the French Headquarters." Sir Philip has inherited much of his fighting qualities from his father, Sir George Chetwode, who served with distinction during the Crimean War in the 8th Hussars as also in two Indian campaigns.

SIR PRATAP SINGH.

Among the Feudatory Princes and Ruling Chiefs of India who have now gone to the front, H. H. Sir Pratap Singh is neither the most wealthy nor the most powerful, but he is perhaps the best known of them all to the British public and represents the type of the best of India's Native Rulers. Born in 1845 he is now in his seventieth year, but no consideration of advancing age could keep him from his "right to serve the King Emperor." He has led a busy life and added lustre to his crown on many an occasion. A soldier, first and foremost, a dashing cavalry officer of the highest class, a general as well as a fighting man, he has also had his triumphs in peaceful spheres. He gained experience under the Maharaja of Jaipur, which he has utilised to such advantage for the administration of Jodhpur that it is a model of administrative efficiency.

His military career is even more distinguished. He has scarcely lost an opportunity of service. In 1878 he formed one of the Kabul Mission. In 1897 he took part in the Mohmad Expedition as A.-D.-C. to General Ellis. This frontier raid was followed next year by a more determined effort and final triumph at the Tirah Expedition in which he was of immense help to the General Officer Commanding, Sir William Lockhart. Two years passed by and he was again in China in command of the Imperial Service Troops which formed part of the international expedition for the relief of the Pekin legation under the command of General Sir Alfred Gaselee. Indian troops and leaders won high tributes from the representatives of the Foreign Powers. In 1902 Sir Pratap became Chief of Idar in Guzerat from which he resigned in favour of his son, though still retaining his position in Jodhpur. He is now an Honorary Commandant of the Imperial Cadet Corps.

Sir Pratap has now passed three-score-and-ten but he is still an excellent rider and a shot. In offering his services at this hour of crisis he has added one more proof of Indian loyalty and chivalry to the Imperial cause. Already we are hearing of the dash and pluck of the Sikhs, the Gurkhas and the Bengal Lancers. All India awaits the triumph of Indian arms in the continental war, and with men like Sir Pratap, there is no wonder that Indian troops are such splendid heroes.

There is an interesting incident which describes the late Earl's intimate relationship with Maharaja Sir Pratap and his admiration of Rajput valour which is narrated thus by the ex-Commander-in-Chief whose loss the Empire is mourning :—

"At Jodhpur my friend the Maharaja Sir Pratap Singh gave us a signal proof that the ancient valour of the Rajputs has not deteriorated in the present day. I had wounded a fine boar, and on his making for some rocky ground where I could hardly have followed him on horseback, I shouted to Sir Pratap to get between him and the rocks, and turn him in my direction. The Maharaja promptly responded, but just as he came face to face with the boar his horse put his foot into a hole and fell, the infuriated animal rushed on the fallen rider, and, before the latter could extricate himself, gave him a severe wound in the leg with his formidable tushes. On going to his assistance I found Sir Pratap bleeding profusely, but standing erect, facing the boar and holding the creature (who was upright on his hind legs) at arm's length by his mouth. The spear without the impetus given by the horse at full speed is not a very effective weapon against the tough hide of a boar's back, and on realising that mine did not make much impression, Pratap Singh, letting go his hold of the boar's mouth, quickly seized his hind-legs, and turned him on his back, crying '*maro Sahib maro!*' which I instantly did and killed him. Any one who is able to realise the strength and weight of a wild boar will appreciate the pluck and presence of mind of Sir Pratap Singh in this performance. Fortunately my wife and daughter, who had been following the pig-stickers in a light cart, were close at hand and we were able to drive my friend home at once. The wound was found to be rather a bad one, but it did not prevent Sir Pratap from attending some tent-pegging and other amusements in the afternoon, though he had to be carried to the scene."

[With such a magazine as the *Indian Review* it is impossible to question the serious interest of fellow subjects in the Dependency in all matters which affect world progress. The striking feature of such magazines is the detached and impartial spirit which animates the writers of the articles and the ready reproof of any utterance which belittles the high ambition of the Indian nation to deserve the respect of all nations.—*The Review of Reviews.*]

THE KAISIRI-HIND.—The peculiar features of this exceedingly well-edited magazine are that contributions and extracts on every branch of subject likely to interest a reading people are presented to the view from month to month. Papers not only on politics and political economy but on matters purely social, religious and intellectual are dealt with by expert contributors. Then there are interesting selections on arts, science, law, and so forth. There are good reviews of new books and some pages are devoted to the public utterances of the day by well known public men from public platforms. Thus a mass of most useful and varied information is presented to the reader who could make his choice what he should read and study and what he might skip over. And all this is offered for the extremely low price of Rupees five per annum. It is indeed *the magazine for the million* and we wish it a long life and steady prosperity. Mr. Natesan is an enterprising young University man who seems to thoroughly understand the practical utility of monthly reviews, as conceived by the popular reader. And he has admirably endeavoured so far to carry out the conception with fidelity and ability. "The Indian Review," in short, is a counterpart to a large extent of Mr. Stead's popular "Review of Reviews."

THE PRINCE OF WALES.

It has been said that the most difficult role to play in Europe is that of an Heir-Apparent. At the present time the British nation takes a special interest in the Prince of Wales and watches with eager solicitude the careful education His Royal Highness is gaining for future duties. The Prince of Wales' Relief Fund started immediately on the outbreak of hostilities is a symbol of the British adoration of the young Prince. The young Prince, though delicate of health, volunteered his service in this great war but Lord Kitchener invalidated the Prince on the score of his minority. It is now announced that H. R. H. has joined the Expeditionary Force in France. Nothing could be more inspiring for the British Forces than the presence of their young Prince among the ranks. It must be an invaluable lesson and the Prince would be proud to be associated in the great patriotic enterprise.

Born at White Lodge, Richmond, on June 23, 1894, the Prince of Wales was educated under the tutorship of Mr. Hansell until he entered Osborne on May 1, 1907. He then went to Dastmouth in 1907, where he was mid-shipman in the *Hindustan*. In 1911, he was invested as Prince of Wales at Carnarvon Castle and in June was made Knight of the Order of the Garter. During the year 1912, he studied French and Political Economy in Paris and later entered the Oxford University as an under-graduate. In 1913, the Prince visited Germany.

Beyond the historic ceremony of the Coronation the Prince has seldom figured in State functions. Alike the Prince and his august parents are anxious to avoid the lime-light of official routine. The first official duty he performed was in June last when he received President Poincare on his arrival in England.

The Prince has been trained very much in the manner of his great father. It is said, he has been an extremely hard worker and has struck those about him, high and low, as what we call 'a live thing.' Nervous and conscientious the Prince has been brought up in the most lovable manner and is universally liked by all with whom he worked, studied and played. The Prince is fond of natural history and enjoys lectures in science. A good sportsman, the training he is now undergoing will be of service when the sceptre falls to him to rule the Empire and it is believed he will be the worthy successor of King George.

GENERAL LEMAN.

The defence of Liege will go down in history as one of the most memorable episodes in the great war. One of the principal miscalculations on which the German War Lord staked his fortune was that he could ride roughshod over Belgium. But the gallant people rose like one man to defend the integrity of the motherland against the onslaughts of unscrupulous assailants. It is on all hands admitted that but for the heroic defence of Liege and the consequent check in the German advance France would have fallen an easy prey to the sudden irruption of the Uhlans.

And the genius of Liege is General Leman who has won a world-wide reputation for his pluck and heroism. Nine years ago he was a Lieutenant-Colonel of the Belgian Engineer Corps and was employed as Director of Studies at the Ecole Militairie having been Professor and Examiner in Mathematics at the same school. General Leman, though only second in rank, was practically in charge of the whole training of the boys both in and out of doors. Proud of his work, he has completely reorganised the entire system which has produced the gallant defenders of the fortress.

Before gaining renown as a Commander in the Field, General Leman had already won it as a Mathematician and Scientist. The author of a very readable and practical treatise on his favourite subject, he is equally a man of fierce and untiring energy. Thus Belgium found in her hour of need the ideal combination of advanced science and thorough practical attainments in the great soldier scientist. In fact, the necessity of this happy combination is the theme of the General's remarks to the military correspondent of the *Daily News and Leader*, when long ago he saw him at his school. "My sole desire has been to amalgamate theory and practice, and to bring the two branches of military training—ensignment and commandment—into line with one another with the object of ensuring success on the battle-field."

How well the Belgian General has justified his precepts is to-day the theme of universal eulogy. And yet the hero of Liege had seen no battle to lead his forces to victory or defeat: for two generations have seen no war, and peace was over all. At the age of sixty-two General Leman leapt into his saddle from his arm-chair at the Ecole Militaire and marched his gallant countrymen to glory.

After all in the nature of things his attempts with a handful of Belgians to stem the tide of the Uhlan hordes was desperate. Many a time alone and single-handed, he worked day and night to avert the fatal tragedy. Often had he been the hero of thrilling exploits and hairbreadth escapes. One such is reported by Dr. Dillon in the *Daily Telegraph*. On one occasion when he was conversing with the officers of his staff two German officers and six privates surprised him at his doors.

"They endeavoured to elbow aside the members of the Belgian Staff, the better to slay General Leman. General Leman cries, 'Quick, hand me a revolver.' One of his subordinates, a man of enormous size, answers, 'You have no right to risk your life, General.' 'I will, I must pass out to them,' insists General Leman, but the military Goliath seizing General Leman, hoists him up above the foundry wall and drops him on the other side, and rejoins him.

From the windows of neighbouring houses the contents of several Brownings were sent after them, but the colossal officer pushed his General into the little workshop of the foundry, saving his life."

But his capture was only a matter of time. A German officer who was present at the storming and bombardment of Liege has given a vivid account of the final phase of this tragic episode of the war. It is said that when the debris of one of the forts that had been practically demolished by artillery fire had been cleared away the General was found beneath half suffocated. First aid was applied, and as soon as he had been restored to consciousness the General was taken before General von Emmich, to whom he surrendered his sword. Recognising General Leman's gallantry, the German Commander at once returned the sword, a knightly act which deeply moved the Belgian hero. General Leman was nursed back to health, and from his place in the prison the brave hero sent a touching and pathetic letter to the King of the Belgians:

"In honour of our arms I have surrendered neither the fortress nor the forts. Daifn pardon, Sire, in Germany where I am proceeding, my thoughts will be, as they always have been, of Belgium and the King. I would willingly have given my life the better to serve them, but death was fast granted to me."

GENERAL PAU.

It has been said that General Pau is the Lord Roberts of the French Army. He is now an old veteran of sixty-six but no schoolboy in France could be more vivacious and energetic. A French writer said some time before the outbreak of the present war: "Amongst his fellow-generals—those who will be called to command the different armies in war time—General Pau is the man that is taken for granted."

This is no *obiter dictum*. Short, thickset, thoroughly French in manner, he is even a more complete contrast than is General Joffre to the rigid type of German Commander. Four and forty years ago in the great Franco-German War the General showed the mettle he was made, when as a young lieutenant just out of the military school of St. Cyr he fought splendidly at Froeschweiler. He lost an arm under Bazaine at Rezonville, recovered from amputation before the surrender of Metz, escaped, got to Toreos, and was drafted into Bonobaki's Army, in which he made the painful, and so far as he went, heroic tramp from Bourges to Pontarlier. Since the age of eighteen he was marked out for success. He commanded his battalion by 1881, was a colonel in 1893, a brigadier in 1897, a general in command of a division in 1903, and general in command of an army corps at Nancy in 1907. When General Joffre wanted a man with the dash and activity of a boy of eighteen he picked on this veteran.

Not less noble is General Pau's admiration of General Joffre. He refused at the outset of the present war the post of Commander-in-Chief and put forward his friend, Joffre.

"Joffre," he said, "is not a man to be depressed by reverses, nor to be made tipsy by success. He has a sturdy, enduring body, as I once had. But I am now considerably his senior in years, and the loss of the arm prevents my using field glasses on horseback. As a Lorrainer, however, I should be glad to serve in Alsace. It would give me a new lease of life to accomplish there any marked success. And it would appease the soul of my dear patriotic sister whom I lost not long since."

And so he went to Mulhousen and the two friends met again on the eve of the deliverance of the "children of Alsace."

The *Indian Review* is a magazine which keeps well abreast of the times in dealing with living subjects of the day.—*Capital*.

GENERAL NEKIHFOROFF,
The Russian Commander.

VON DER GOLTZ
Military Governor of Belgium

GENERAL PAU,
The Victor of Alsace.

GENERAL LEMAN.
The heroic defender of Liege.

GENERAL D'AMADE.
The most English of the French Generals.

GENERAL NICOLAS RUZSKY,
The Russian Victor of Galicia.

GENERAL SIR H. L. SMITH DORRIEN,
Who saved the Left Wing of General French's Army.

THE CROWN PRINCE OF GERMANY,
Who is leading an Army Corps in France.

GENERAL RENNENKAMPF.
The Russian General operating against East Prussia.

SIR PHILIP CHETWODE.
Commanding General French's Fifth Cavalry Brigade.

GENERAL D'AMADE.

In his memorable despatch on September 7th Sir John French wrote with reference to the fighting on August 27th and 28th: "General D'Amade also with the 61st and 62nd French Reserve Divisions moved down from the neighbourhood of Arras on the enemy's right flank and took much pressure off the rear of the British forces." Now what sort of man is this General D'Amade? The *Sketch* gives the following picture: "He is able to keep the martial character intact under a pile of social attainments. A man of about fifty, with grey moustache and grey-blue eyes, a brilliant horseman and of established valour, he is the best type of the able and active soldiers who are upholding the honour of France in the present encounter."

It has been said that his allies find no fitter description than that he is an officer and a gentleman. In fact D'Amade has moved with Englishmen and has frequently been seen in London and is fairly conversant with English idioms. In fact he knows more English than most Englishmen know French. He has already been in touch with the British army on active service. He went through the South African War as French Military Attaché. The South African friendship with English Generals has now borne fruit. Many of the English Commanders in the present Expeditionary Force saw service in South Africa when D'Amade was attaché. In bearing and appearance General D'Amade looks every inch a first rate fencer. With his pleasing manners and vivacity he is a typical Frenchman and a worthy comrade to the English Commandants.

Major-General Pulteney.

Major-General William Pulteney, C.B., D.S.O., is fifty-four years of age and has been in command of the Sixth Division of the Irish Command since 1910 and has had a long and varied war record. He is a Guardsman and was present with the Guards' Brigade in Egypt in 1882, being at the battle of Mahuta and Telish Kabir. Whilst employed on special duty under the Foreign Office in Uganda, he served in the Unyoro and Nandi Expeditions (medal and clasp). From 1899 to 1902 he was in South Africa, being three times mentioned in despatches, promoted to a Brevet Coloneloy, and receiving the Queen's medal with six clasps and the King's with two. He commanded the 1st Battalion Scots Guards during the Boer War.

General Nicolas Ruzsky.

General Nicolas Vladimirovitch Ruzsky is one of the most prominent officers of the Russian General Staff with previous experience in two wars. Chief of staff in the second Manchurian Army he made his name in the Russo-Japanese War. He received his military education at the Gymnasium at Petrograd and later at the Constantine Military Schools and the Nicolas Academy of the General Staff. When only eighteen he served as Sub-Lieutenant in the Turkish War. A Colonel at thirty-one and a Major-General at forty-two, he is now in full command of an important section of the Russian forces operating against Austria. He is now sixty-one.

The Petrograd correspondent of the *Times* gives a pleasant picture of the Russian General. Regulations have been drafted, says he, under General Ruzsky's direction for the governing of the Army. It has always been considered that theory and practice are inseparable. "In order to be a good General," he always said, "one must be able to devise a plan of attack and also to carry it out." This rare combination of qualities of Field Commander and scientific training has brought General Ruzsky to the front. To the foregoing must be added great intelligence and capacity in operating large masses of men.

During the big military manœuvres General Ruzsky attracted attention because he could tell at any given moment where any Regiment stood and he could extract the maximum of benefit from the position of every unit.

Before the war, General Ruzsky, then Commander of the Kieff Military District, seriously studied the future scene of the operations, and it is quite safe to assert that at the beginning of the campaign the conqueror of Lwow (Lemberg) knew every path, gully, and elevation in Galicia as well as, and perhaps better than, the Austrian leader. This detailed study of the battlefield and familiarity with the scene of the warfare, joined to the qualities of a great General, helped General Ruzsky to gain his victory over the Austrians. The General has already achieved distinction by the complete capture of Lemberg as the proclamation issued by the Grand Duke Nicolas indicates. He has thus avenged in Galicia the defeat of the Russian Army in German Poland. It is reported that his capture of Galicia has practically annihilated the Austrian armies and Russia is expecting further progress under his command.

General Rennenkampf.

General Rennenkampf, the victor in the battle of August 21 in East Prussia where three German Corps are reported to have been routed, is the leader of the Russian Army operating against Germany. He is a veteran of wide experience and has seen considerable war service in his time. He was probably the one Russian General who came through the Russo-Japanese War with enhanced reputation. Born at Estlande on 17th April 1854, he was educated successively in the Reval Gymnasium, the Military School of Finland and in the Nicolas Academy, St. Petersburg. Having had a thorough military training he entered the 5th Uhlan Regiment, commanded the Acktizsky Regiment of Dragoons and was soon after made Chief D'Etat-Major of East Baykal District. Further honours were in store for him and he became successively Commander of the First Cavalry Brigade, the 3rd Cossack Division of West Baykal, 7th and the 3rd Siberian Corps. In 1900 he was called upon to serve in Macedonia and received the honour of the Cross of St. George. In the Russo-Japanese War he commanded the Siberian Cossack Division and so distinguished himself that he was made General-Lieutenant with the Order of St. Stanislaus from the Emperor. Although wounded, he never left his post and only after a very serious wound in the leg was for a little while in the hospital. He is a splendid type of horseman and rejoices in cavalry charges quite as much as our Sir John French. One who has seen him at the battlefield says that the battle of Lianyang and Shaho will always keep the name of General Rennenkampf alive. It is said that the most brilliant officers of the Russian Life Guards volunteered for service in Rennenkampf's division. That is an indication of the magnetic power of his personality. The present war has opened out a rich field of glory and adventure to General Lieutenant Rennenkampf of whom much is expected alike by the Emperor and the people of Russia.

The premier Review and Magazine of India. The literary man, the politician, the scholar and student, will all find in its pages matter of engrossing interest. No literary man, educationist or student * * * should deprive himself of the advantage of having *The Indian Review* on his book-shelf or table.—*Bassein News.*

Speaking of the reference books he consulted in the preparation of his book, "Economics of British India," Prof. Jadunath Sarkar, M.A., says: I have been greatly helped by the old files of the *Indian Review*, which contain a large fund of accurate information on Indian economic questions, not to be easily gathered elsewhere.

VON DER 'GOLTZ.

On the occupation of Belgium, Field Marshall Von Der Goltz was appointed Military Governor of the State. Public opinion in Germany had long marked him out as the probable Commander-in-Chief of the German forces in time of war. The Field Marshall is an old veteran of seventy and has won reputation alike as a writer and as a fighter. Curiously enough his first literary efforts were novels written when a cadet at Gross-Lichterfelde to help to support his widowed mother. But he achieved his world-wide reputation by the publication of "Nation in Arms." and "Army Leadership," which are now studied as Text Books in the military colleges of every nation. Der Goltz had long been connected with the military training of the Turks but the recent Balkan conflict proved that they had not altogether much profited by the German discipline. Even in Germany, since the utter rout of the Turks in a single campaign, many thought that Der Goltz had dug the grave of his own reputation. But the Kaiser thought otherwise and appointed him Inspector-General of the Second Army including the flower of the Prussian Guards. Though no favourite at court owing to his blunt and bluff outspoken manner Goldz Pasha, the title of which he is still proud, is almost universally considered the Fatherland's greatest living soldier.

Much of Goltz's military tactics were learnt under the greatest living soldier in Germany, Field Marshall Count Von Haesler. As he admits himself the great spartan soldier "gave my whole military life a different direction than it would otherwise have taken." Distinctly, a soldier of imagination and initiative, he is as much a great General as a great writer. In fact if he has done nothing more than his books, it would have entitled him to the highest reputation. His books have been translated into twelve languages of Europe and we can find no more brilliant and unanswerable apotheosis of obligatory military service elsewhere. All of Goltz's writings are marked by a picturesqueness and lucidity which stamp him a man of literary style. Germany and the Kaiser, says a writer, have showered their richest honours on the bespectacled soldier who looks more like a schoolmaster than a General. From his rank of junior lieutenant in the Austrian campaign of 1866 in which he had his left shoulder smashed by shell fire, Goltz has risen to the dignity of the Field Marshall of Prussia and Knight of the Black Eagle.

GENERAL VON KLUCK.

General Von Kluck is the leader of the German rightwing which made the British Army its special object of attack. Von Kluck dealt savagely reckless blows which, however, failed to break the British lines at Mons and at Cambrai on September 7, and finding his march impossible retreated to the Aisne. It is reported that the hammer he was preparing threatened to become the anvil.

Von Kluck is perhaps the only great hope of the German Army. The military veterans who may be trusted with the fortunes of the German arms have become old and have more or less retired from active service and among the younger generals there is scarcely one with sufficient distinction to be entrusted with such onerous commands. Owing to lack of generals it would appear that the giants of four score years, who have since left their homes for curing stations have all been recalled. Von Der Goltz, Bernhardi, Pritwitz, Haessler and Hidelberg—all giants of a forgotten era—are all come back with their swords. Hence the most important commission in the operations of the Western Theatre therefore fallen to the lot of the great soldier-general, Von Kluck.

Von Kluck's plan was to take Paris at any cost, and though he has failed so far in taking the world by surprise, he succeeded in erecting the Aisne trenches on which is supposed to depend the fortunes of the most historic battle in France.

Von Kluck is a fine officer, tall, thin, and truly Latin in aspect except for his spike helmet and his "tooth-brush moustache. He owes his rank neither to noble birth nor to intrigue. In fact, he had reached the rank of colonel before the Emperor bestowed nobility on him, and he apparently did not care very much about being 'Von Kluck' after having been for so many years simply 'Kluck.' The general is thoroughly popular with his soldiers, partly because he treats them well, partly because they recognise him as a real chief, a true leader. He is a man of few words. His writings on strategy make him an authority—academically, of course—on military science.

But he has always been regarded as an officer of outstanding ability. He is in many respects however, an exception in the German Officer Corps and if he should prove unequal to his rising reputation German arms would be in great jeopardy.

The Crown Prince of Germany.

The Crown Prince of Germany, who is now in command of an important section of the Kaiser's forces, and whose impulsive indiscretions seem to have placed General Von Kluck in an awkward situation, and his own in frequent danger of being hemmed in by the opponents, is a born fighter. He is undoubtedly the most popular Royal figure in Germany to-day with the possible exception of the Emperor. During the last few years, the world has been made familiar with the Royal Prince's well-known doings, his love of sport, his military enthusiasm, his blazing indiscretions; in a word with all the fussiness of an impulsive character and a restless spirit. Though he has not made as yet a mark for rulership, befitting the would-be Emperor of a great Empire, there is no doubt of his capacities for soldiering and it is generally believed that, at present at any rate, he is the right man in the right place.

Berlin and Potsdam have indeed seen little of the Crown Prince. It is well-known that since the winter of 1912-13 he was immuned at Danzig. His so-called "exile" and "banishment" from the Imperial Capital had many a time been attributed to parental jealousy of the Crown Prince's popularity. This inuendo is an apparent absurdity. For who does not know the light-hearted and impulsive predilections of the Prince? Among the Royal and aristocratic circles he passes for a "notorious democrat". Though he is close upon thirty-two he has seldom displayed that tact for reserve in utterance and dignity in manners that should characterise the future Kaiser. His blood is always up, and he knows naught of what passes for diplomacy. In the Reichstag he would side openly with the Opposition and cheer the Socialist militarist. He has been at the head and front of all Anglophobia and mailfistism long before the outbreak of the war.

He became the leader of the war-party in Germany when three years ago he dissented from the Chancellor's proposed peaceful arrangement with France in regard to Morocco. His conduct led to a rupture with the Kaiser who however admitted, "Well, William is no diplomat. I will admit it; but I believe the fellow has got marrow in his bones. He will turn out to be our Moltke yet."

It is said that he has inherited a double dose of his father's militarism and a double dose of his capacities. With a perpetually smiling physiognomy and a devil-may-care manner he has done many things which stamp him a "man of independance of character and high-minded patriotism."

He had the moral courage to tell the Emperor of the scandals in His Majesty's personal entourage in connection with Herr Harden's revelations. He wedded the Princess without waiting to participate in a marriage of political convenience. He has taken risks in hurdle races, cavalry charges, aeroplane flights and airship cruisers without consulting anything but his own whims. He did not hesitate to give vent to his personal feelings in the Reichstag during the great Moroccan debate in 1911, when large sections of his countrymen, like himself, felt that Germany had rattled her sword and then ignominiously withdrawn from the fray.

Such are some of the Crown Prince's assertions of individuality. All these varied exhibitions of courageous and high-minded initiatives were expressions of a temperament which the Crown Prince had manifested all his life. His soul must be merry now that he is in the fray. In fact, he has long shown a weakness for sport and war, and the recent report of his vandalism in a Duchess's castle can add little lustre to his sportsmanship. It is impossible to think of the Prince as a writer, but he is the author of a well-known book "My Hunting Diary in India," which is a modest account of his reminiscences of a hunting-tour in this country. When all is said he is a simple, unostentatious, genial kind of man, and as an admiring biographer says: "The great-grandson of the first Kaiser will know, if he is forced to fight, how to guard his rights, and most assuredly he will not be William the Last."

The Crown Prince is thus no more the "unwritten page" he was depicted to be some time ago.

Sir Archibald Murray.

Major General Sir Archibald James Murray, K.C.B., M.V.O., D.S.O., the chief of staff in the Expeditionary Force, is one of Sir John French's chosen men. Colonel of the Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers and Inspector of Infantry since 1912, Sir Archibald entered the twenty-seventh Regiment in 1879, became Captain of the Inniskilling Fusiliers in 1887, and was promoted Major General in 1910. He has since had exceptional facilities for war service having seen action in Zululand in 1888, and South Africa in 1899, where he was dangerously wounded. As Director of Military Training at the War Office from 1907 to 1912, he has had ample experience in the training of the army which it is hoped he will use to the best advantage at the present crisis. For his services in the South African War he was awarded the King's and Queen's medals. Sir Archibald is now fifty-four years of age and he is a veritable Berthier, quiet, self-possessed, determined, thoroughly up to date as regards professional knowledge, and a tremendously hard-worker."

GENERAL BOTHA.

Fourteen years ago General Botha fought against the British whose Empire in South Africa he is now endeavouring to augment. For six and thirty months he fought the British tooth and nail and won his spurs at Colenso and many a guerilla warfare. And to-day he doubtless has among his soldiers many who fought in opposition to him in those trying times. Such are the amazing chances of war. We are witnessing to-day the culmination of the glorious act of British liberalism under the inspiration of Campbell Bannerman which began with the nomination of the Boer General as the Premier of the Union of South Africa. General Botha who now commands the Expeditionary Force against the German South-West Africa was born in 1862, at Greytown in Natal. He early saw active service in savage warfare and in the South African War suddenly rose to eminence from comparative obscurity. His success in many a skirmish earned him so great a reputation that on the death of General Joubert he became as a matter of course Commander-in-Chief of the Transvaal Boers. It is a matter of common knowledge that even after the fall of Pretoria he re-organised the Boer resistance with a view to fight the British forces. Ably assisted by De Wet and De la Ray he continued his stubborn and indomitable pursuit till inevitably overcome by superior numbers, equipment and discipline.

On the close of the war—and Botha had his share in bringing about the final settlement—he turned his mind to the paths of peace and settled Government. Since then Botha has been recognized as a great statesman. He has come to be regarded as one of the most remarkable men in a remarkable Empire. In South Africa he is looked upon as a great leader of the Boer people, as a consistent advocate of efficient administration. He was thus a pioneer in the reconstruction of South Africa under British rule. He was made Premier of the Union in 1910, and a couple of years later a General in the British Army.

And so this redoubtable fighter comes again to "take on the job," and add fresh lustre to a life filled with many an adventure. A soldier and a statesman he will once again give the German this time a new lesson in the art of war which will be unforgettable.

GENERAL BOTHA,
Commanding the Union Forces in Africa

THE PRINCE OF WALES.
Who is now in the Front.

COL. SIR PRATAP SINGH.
Regent of Jodhpur.

GENERAL AUFFENBERG.

CROWN PRINCE CARL FRANZ.

GENERAL DANKL.

AUSTRIAN LEADERS WHO HAVE FELT THE WEIGHT OF THE RUSSIAN IMPACT IN GALICIA.

The Library Digest.

WOMEN AS STANDARD BEARERS

BY THE LADY FRANCES BALFOUR.

A little procession passed along the side of one of the great London thoroughfares leading to the west, a district of London still full of the remains of ancient forest trees and the leafy orchards of farm-houses, which have long given place to streets and gardens. There are many people walking, always passing along the pilgrim way, and to-day we watch the ever widening and deepening line of men who are preparing for the battle-front.

This procession was a faithful imitation of the movement of troops. Night was falling, the lamps were half lit, and there were more shadows than light. All the marchers ought to have been in their beds, preparing for the day and the hour still a long way ahead of them, for the eldest was about nine years of age, and the rank-and-file were about two years younger. They were marching to the tuck of drum, beaten as far as could be seen on a variety of tin plates and lids. Their formation was close, and they kept an even tread. The boys were beating the drums, and the little company was led by two standard bearers. The two that carried the flags were girls, and in their hands the well-worn folds of the Union Jack were held carefully aloft. The children play at War, and as they gather under their elected leaders the standard bearers are the women.

But the thoughts of many hearts may be revealed is the constant feeling as we tread the accustomed ways and get used to the unaccustomed sights.

Women in their efforts for the rights of full citizenship have been so often confronted with the menace of War, with the assertion that when it is made they must stand and look on. Brute force it is that wins, and they are no judges of the hour in the nations when that supreme test must be applied.

To-day, internationally, women are thinking of the future. Every country is wondering what will be its life when at last the "sulphurous canopy" of War is cleared away. Every nation knows it cannot return to the old ways. Some will suffer in loss of territory, to all will come the exhaustion of prolonged warfare. Women will be in the majority of men all over the Continents that engaged in the struggle. Already, where there is conscription, the work of men is being done by women. "The must shall foam round the white feet of laughing girls whose sires have marched"—from whence there is no return. We are constantly being asked why women are not being employed in the traffic by tram and rail, and in bureaus and fields as they are in France. The answer is that with a volunteer army, as we have, the call to arms can be met without depriving these services of their usual male workers, and that the established order of things is so little disturbed at present, it is not necessary to use women in a way unaccustomed to the ordinary habits of the public. The British people would rather go without a thing than have their conventional ideas as to what ought to be done upset. An innkeeper, who was still employing German waiters in this country, was told by a customer that it would be more seemly to have a set of women waiters. He replied, Germans he had always had, and he did not see his way to do otherwise.

There is a great deal of this conventionalism and red tape about the methods of the funds raised for the relief of distress. The Prince of Wales' Fund is being administered by a Committee of men as the majority, who are totally unacquainted with the conditions of the people, and some of them conspicuous instances of having no administrative ability. An early decision not to help women to obtain remunerative employment was entirely based on the old assumption that women could not be employed, and if their breadwinner was away, they must be supported on the old system of soup and bread tickets.

Now, as the men have passed away from their civil occupations and form part of the army at the front, what does their absence reveal? It now shows at once how closely interwoven to-day are the employments of men and women. All that implies a liberal education has been shared for forty years by both sexes. The dislocation of trade and commerce, and the Stock Exchange, has thrown more women-typists out of work than men. The Army Clothing Departments would be badly off if the women were in the trenches, and the Telephone and Post Office service has taxed the strength and endurance of women as highly as that of the men employed. Perhaps, when peace allows us a survey of the splendid public

service maintained throughout the country, women will be considered worthy of their hire in a way which has not hitherto been recognised.

Then will women still be considered as having no concern with war? Will the duty nobly performed of not trying to keep the men at home count for nothing? Women are wondering to-day whether their responsible citizenship has been recognised. Certain it is if half the people had hindered the other half in active service, and had the half not in the battlefield declined the added activities which awaited them in the public interest, our forces would have taken the field badly equipped in body, but yet more in spirit. Victoria Crosses will not be distributed to women who have not deserted the sick in hospitals and houses shelled by the enemy. The women, "the succourers of the many," who would have hungered and thirsted in vain in the trenches before Liège, will not be decorated because they saved the lives of their comrades under fire. But they will dispense with ribbons and medals if that comradeship and its rights are more fully recognised by the civilised world.

In this War, as it has been conducted by the Germans, women have suffered horrors in comparison to which the wounds made by shot and shell are very slight. They have been borne with the same endurance and courage. Women cannot be spared in modern warfare any more than they were and are in nations, whose ways did not recognise the laws of the Christian world. It has been proved that the invading army of Germany has practised all the cruelties we were taught to consider the peculiar property of the Turk against Christians. The weaker the people attacked, the greater must be the strength put forth by the "superman". The women pay double toll. Theirs' are the men, sons, or bread-winners. Their money has helped to build up the collossal armies of the age. They are unarmed more because of conventionalism than because they are incapable of fighting. The unarmed citizen has been murdered and robbed without distinction of sex, and the conqueror has not spared those cruelties to which sex is open.

A community of suffering has enhanced the comradeship of the people. It will be difficult when the land is once more at rest for any one comrade to turn to another and say:—"This war has not hurt you. No suffering of heart, no injury to your person has touched you. Your occupation and wage earning is the same, stand aside, you shall have nothing to do with the policy which supports the Sovereign and Parliament in War or in Peace."

We know how heavy must be the taxation which will be needed to clear us from the burden the war has laid on the finances of the nation. We shall be poorer in this world's gear, the richer in the things which belong to the spirit. There will be a gap in the generations; our young manhood has been cut off in its prime; and the loss will tell heavily on the generation in which we live. It has been a War made with the solemn consent of the whole people: can any one separate the values of the consent and divide it into sexes? If we have been a people in community of suffering, sacrifice and assent, have we not also been one in the intellectual forces brought to bear on the condition of the country?

It has not, as we have endeavoured to show, been necessary to call women to do the work of men, as it has been on the Continent. Had our last available man gone to the front, no one doubts that in those civilian tasks taken up by the women on the Continent, we in our Kingdom could have done them as efficiently. There has been no wailing and swooning among the women citizens; the Continental women have been hardened to the thought of conscription. Their long frontiers have been steel girt, and swarming with armed men for centuries. Our women had no such education of material facts; their homes have held men who choose the profession of arms, as freemen. Their eyes have looked over the sea-girt frontiers of their land, guarded by the knowledge that our ships are riding on the waves. And yet in the hour when the call has come, the women of Europe and Great Britain have met it with an equal appreciation of the work of brain and hands they are called upon to perform.

The mess sergeant who passes round the mess tins in the trenches swept with shrapnel is as much on active duty as the soldier he serves with food, whose rifle is almost too hot to hold.

Obedience and discipline are equally laid upon the community, and the suffering if unequal is accepted by the weaker comrade as part of the glory in which she can share and cannot be denied. Standard bearers of the company, comrades under arms; such are the people in stress of war. We have read it in the light of the tens of thousands of watch fires lit to-day in Europe.

The last man and the last shilling say the Colonies where women vote. The women of the East, who from their seclusion have seen the great

array of Indians set forth, have given an expression of their faith that the Empire needs support that the world may dwell more securely from military rapine and cruelty. A ray of Western teaching is coming back from the women of the East. They also are standard bearers; the colours now are no longer taken into battle, they rest in the hearts and homes of the people.

We gather together the thoughts which are in many minds. Already our eyes are on the links of time. "We look before and after," and we believe that in the ages to come, wars shall cease because though the ultimate decisions of humanity may always rest on brute force, we know that the decisions of the future will not lie with the dead bones in the valleys and hills of this conflict; it will lie with those who live to count the cost, and to ask themselves for what has all this great river of blood been shed? It has been shed in the cause of freedom, and the more free and equal the people, the more will they determine that no one individual or nation shall make itself lord over the rights and liberties of the many.

The soldier who has fought well will earn his promotion and his reward. But the people who have given their heart's blood, and their treasure, will seek the reward of being promoted to a yet higher recognition by the State, the seal and recognition that they have been true yoke fellows in the day when the Crusade went forth conquering and to conquer at Freedom's call.

WOMEN IN WAR

BY A HINDU WOMAN.

THE WEAKER VESSEL.

WOMAN and War! How different are the ideas suggested by the above two words! The one presents to us the picture of love, devotion, purity and grace. And the other, war, what is it? It has been truly described as the combination of all the horrors, atrocities, crimes and sufferings of which human nature is capable. Therefore, at first, we are inclined to agree with the general opinion prevailing about women from the olden times that they are timid and emotional creatures capable only of 'weeping and waiting' in times of war. But a little reflection and a glance through the pages of history will convince us how erroneous has been our idea. For we shall see that women have had a part of great importance, in one connection or other, in many a battle in history. And the independent and practical women of the West prove a self-evident denial to the above mentioned theory —even leaving out of account the militant suffragettes of whose heroism there can be no two questions as Mr. Asquith and some other English statesmen of the present day can so well testify. It will be interesting, therefore, to compare the parts played by women in wars in ancient and modern days.

IN ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL TIMES.

We shall find in the history of nations that women have generally appeared in the past in war either as actual participants or as the causes of it. In the West, the story of fair Helen of Troy, the cause of the great Trojan war, is well-known. The Romans found antagonists worthy of them in the Egyptian Queen Cleopatra, and Boadicia, the British Queen of martial fame. The former died by her own hands rather than surrender as an honorable vassal even to the mighty Julius Cæsar; while the latter met her death, fighting sword in hand against the hosts of Rome. The last representative of this heroic race of western women was the Maid of Orleans who, with her mystic dreams and belief in fate, appeals to the eastern mind as a kindred spirit of their own land.

In the East, too, where women are supposed to be so backward in general, there is a record of its fair and heroic daughters which it need not fear comparison with that of the West. Shurpanakhi, sister to Ravana, King of Lanka, enjoys a distinction, similar to that of Helen, of being the factor that brought on the great war narrated in the Ramayan. Though we cannot find anywhere that she was reputed for her beauty like the

latter, yet she herself seems to have been pretty well confident of it, for she tries to persuade the exiled prince, Rama, to forsake his beautiful, noble wife Sita—Sita who is admired and revered to this day in India as the embodiment of the highest ideal of womanhood. But, as fate would have it, her offer ended in her mutilation by Luxman. Lanka's proud monarch could not brook such a personal insult to his sister, and the kidnapping of Sita by him and the subsequent terrible war with Rama were the sequel of Madame Shurpanakhi's adventure.

We had our fighting women also. In the Ramayan itself we find that Dasaratha's youngest wife, Kaikeyi, gets her two boons (which she ultimately uses as a means for the disinheritance and banishment of Rama) for having saved his life in a great battle with a powerful Daitya named Sambara. In the other epic, the Mahabharata, we see how the invincible hero of the time, Arjuna, was challenged to and engaged in personal combat by Premila, the Queen of our Indian amazons, until neutral friends interfered and the fight ended in the marriage of the combatants.

Passing over to the middle ages, we find that the history of Rajputana teems with accounts of the heroic deeds of its daughters during the Mahomedan Period. One of the most noted among them was the beautiful Padmini, called the Flower of Chitore, a title for which she paid dearly enough. For Ala-ud-din, King of Delhi, hearing of her beauty, was enamoured of her and treacherously capturing her husband, the Rana of Chitore, claimed her as his ransom. Padmini, resolved to pay Ala-ud-din back in his own coin, disguised her two thousand chosen warriors as her maids of honor and palanquin bearers and bravely rescued her husband from the enemy's camp. The princes and all the best and bravest of the warriors of Chitore had sacrificed their lives in the war; but when, at last, it was clear that the fall of the city was inevitable, the terrible *Johar* rites were resolved upon as a last resource. At the head of a yellow-robed procession of singing women was the "Flower of Chitore," serene and smiling, going to meet her death by fire to escape the insults of Ala-ud-din.

The warrior-princess of Thoda, Tarabai, who, by her unshaken resolve, got back her father's city for him, together with her brave husband, from the Mahomedans, is another example of the high and noble spirit of Rajputnis. And the famous Regent Queen of Bijapur, Chand Sultana, what a combination of heroic resolve, political genius and wisdom have we in her! This great woman, who had guided the two States of Ahmednagar and Bijapur through the stormy days of internal political strife and conducted the famous "Battle of the Veil" so brilliantly, at last met her death by the hands of a vile traitor. Aurungzebe, the last of the really powerful Moghuls, ought to have good cause to remember a Maharatta princess—the mother of Shivaji. For, the death of his general, Afzul Khan, was due to her. A brave and ambitious woman and a sincere devotee of the Goddess Kali, she contemplates such a deed as the treacherous murder of Afzul without a qualm—a thing which even her daring and resolute son hesitates to do. After spending a whole night in prayers to her Goddess she appears in the morning as one divinely inspired and enjoins upon Shivaji the carrying out of the task without remorse—for such a deed committed to put down the desecrator of the Mother's temples cannot be a sin. And her obedient and loving son, Shivaji, bends his will to her strong faith.

Two other Mahratta princesses—Ahalya Bai of Indore and the Rani of Jhansi—will be remembered in history along with Shivaji's mother. The former, though more noted for statecraft, once overthrew the military plans of Radho, the Peshwa's uncle, by her clever strategy; and the latter fought personally during the mutiny. There is no space to enter into any details about them and we shall pass on to the modern woman.

A CHANGED RÔLE.

Curiously enough women seem to have changed their rôle, or rather forced to change it. For what nation will dream of going to war to-day, say, for the sake of a princess? Everybody will ridicule it as a melodramatic idea in these days of materialism and democracy. Though now-a-days it is a common cry in the West that their women are being dewomanised—*i. e.*, losing all their womanly qualities of gentleness, modesty, etc., by their inordinate desire to compete with men in all public offices—with all this we have not yet heard that a single woman, not even Mrs. Pankhurst, has offered to go to the front. Public opinion would regard the idea of women as fighters in the ranks as outrageous. And for that reason the Russian damsel who shouldered a rifle and fought in the trenches recently; the young Servian, Miss Sophie Yovanovitch, who had the credit of sending several Turks to their heaven;

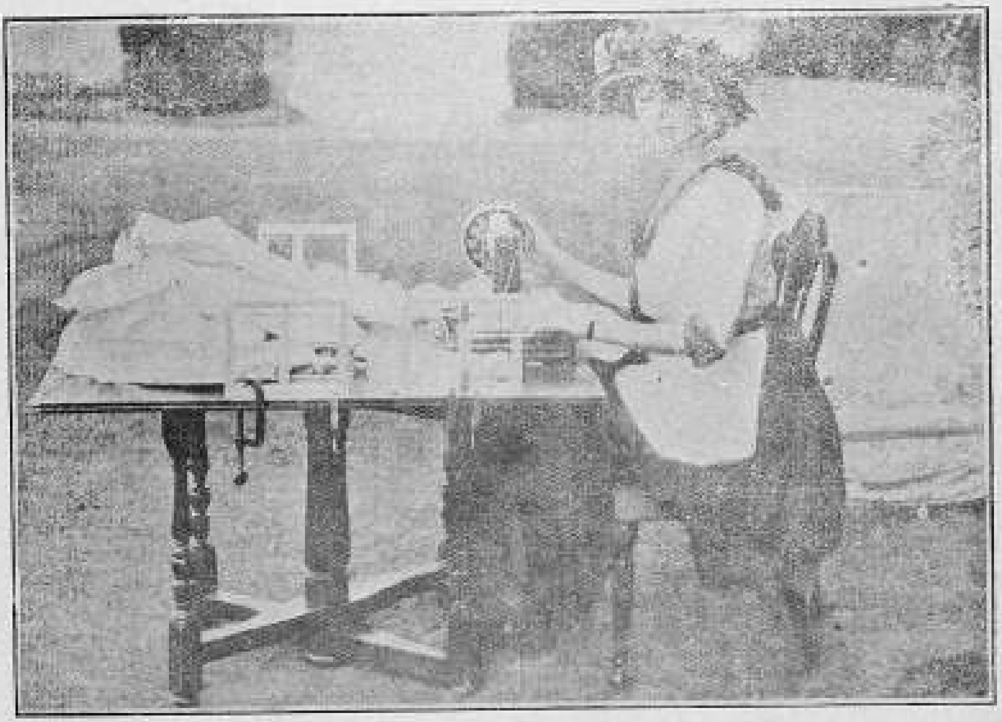
FEEDING HUNGRY BELGIANS.
All classes in the valiant little nation are levelled to necessities like this.

THEY WHO REMAIN TO MOURNE.
Peasant women of Austria after searching the lists of the dead.

THE EX-EMPRESS EUGENIE HELPS THE WOUNDED

Eugénie, the widow of Napoleon III, has lived in England since the downfall of the Emperor in 1870. At the advanced age of 88, she is actively helping on the cause of the Allies. She has devoted her fine home at Farnborough Hill to the purposes of a military hospital. She appears near the centre dressed in black.

The Outlook.



A DUCHESS AND HER SEWING MACHINE.

The Duchess of Westminster busy with her preparations at Gifford House, Roehampton.

The Bystander.

MILLICENT DUCHESS OF SUTHERLAND.
Arrives at the front in Belgium to act as a Red Cross Nurse.

Xenia Kritskdya who took part in the Russo-Japanese War; Haristana Korotkievitch who fought by the side of her husband in the same war; Hannah Snell, "a truculent looking person," who played an active part in the siege of Pondicherry; Christian Davis, the "fat, jolly woman," the female soldier whose grave may be seen in the Chelsea Hospital Cemetery, and, last, the well known English women, Phœbe Hessel, who fought at Fontenoy, and "Dr. James Barry," who served at Waterloo and in the Crimea—all these had to work disguised as men. So they have now turned their minds towards the great work of mercy—the care and comforting of the wounded on the battlefield.

Ruskin has somewhere said that women, too, have public work to do like men but on their own special ground; that, as a woman's work at home consists in the beautifying, educating and the comforting of it, she has her duties to perform in the æsthetic, educational and humanitarian departments of public life. In the last named of these she has obtained recognition readily enough though men are shy of acknowledging her in the others. The fact that there is such a well-trained and adequate staff of nurses at the war-field to-day is due to a woman Miss Florence Nightingale who was one of the prime founders of the Red Cross movement in Europe. Her power of organisation, capacity for leadership and genius for getting things done under difficulties were so unique that her latest biographer, Sir Edward Cooke, says of her that "a great Commander-in-Chief was lost to her country when Florence Nightingale was born a woman!" In this present war from the highest lady to the poorest woman in the Empire each is working in her own way for the benefit of the wounded soldiers and their families. Her Majesty Queen Mary is interesting herself greatly on their behalf and her gift of a motor ambulance for the use of the Indian troops is but a single instance of it. The Duchess of Westminster and other great ladies are personally exerting themselves in preparing clothes and comforts. And thousands of women in England, France and Russia are doing valuable work in various directions such as organising relief kitchens, fostering orphans and the like. Many are stepping into the places of men as typists, clerks and waiters so that the nation's business may not suffer. Some have already gone to the front as Red Cross nurses, while others are replacing the professional nurses in the home hospitals.

HEROISM AMONG MODERN WOMEN.

Though the women of to-day do not actually join the army and do the bloody work of murder, they are not the less brave than in the olden days, as will be seen by several accounts that appear in the newspapers of many a brave deed performed by them. Among these is the Grand Duchess of Luxemburg who opposed the oncoming of the German troops by placing her motor-car in their path, till the German heroes (?) pointed their revolvers at her and told her to get out of the way quickly. And the two telephone girls of Louvain—how proud we feel to read about them! These two were working at the telephone when some shells exploded near the building and part of it tumbled down. But they stirred not from their post for fear of creating confusion in the Belgian army at a certain point. Another brave woman is a Madame Macherez who, when the Mayor of Soisson fled, took charge of the town and defied the Germans to do their worst. We cannot help admiring the tireless energy of the Union Des Femmes de France which is conducting a number of temporary hospitals in Nancy and the surrounding places for the sake of the wounded. One of their nurses, a girl of seventeen, was killed by a shell. Yet they are doing their self-imposed task undaunted even within range of fire.

INDIAN WOMEN.

And the women of India? They, too, are doing what they can, though their work consists for the present in the sewing of shirts and sending gifts of chocolate and money for the soldiers. The women of Bombay alone have collected about 2½ lakhs in cash for the War Fund. Mr. Bhupendranath Basu has told us that the women in Bengal have offered their jewelry for the cause of the Empire. No one but an Indian can understand how great must be the devotion that can prompt such a loyal wish. For the men of India know to their cost how passionately fond their women are of jewelry which is also their savings bank.

THE GREATER SACRIFICE.

We have thus seen how women both western and eastern are giving their time, their money and energy for the Empire. But many of them have given something more precious than all this. As a statesman recently said in a great speech—"some of them have given something more dear than life itself—they have given the lives of those that are dear to them." Women are always

the greatest sufferers in a war. They have to send away their husbands and children and fathers and brothers to fight, waiting for the worst tidings from the seat of war. Besides, in the case of the poor the double duties of mother and bread-winner often fall on the woman.

A SUGGESTION.

Limited as her field of action at present is, the Indian woman can do a great service to her country if she likes. India has sent every help that she could to England in the hour of need in the form of men, money and articles of comfort. And it is true that both the men and women of Britain benefit by it all. But the nature of woman is one that craves for a direct form of sympathy. So, if the women of India send, either out of the funds already collected or by a separate collection, a certain sum, "as a token of love to sorrowing English women from sympathising Indian sisters," to the wives of poor British soldiers who have died in the present war, it will create a lasting band between the two countries as nothing else has done hitherto. It may not, perhaps, create a sensation like the one produced when the list of offers from Indian Princes was read out in Parliament. But the women of Britain will feel that the women of India have a heart large enough to feel for them and the result will be the strengthening of the ties between the two nations both politically and sentimentally. The opportunity is an excellent one and we will do well to utilise it. It is not for me, nor have I the necessary experience, to work out of the details. So I place the idea for what it is worth before the public hoping that some prominent leader of society will take it in hand.

THE POETRY OF THE WAR

BY PROF. J. H. MACKINTOSH.

(OF THE PRESIDENCY COLLEGE, MADRAS).

OF the ultimate power of war to breed literature in the warlike nation there can be little doubt. There is more than chance in the notable instances of the past, Marathon succeeded in a generation by the poetic greatness of the Periclean age, the Armada more rapidly followed by the vigorous flowering of English literary expression; nor was the convulsion of the French revolution and the Napoleonic wars unproductive of consequences of this sort in any of the great countries of Europe which it immediately affected. This, however, should not blind us to the fact that the literary stimulus of warlike events is rarely direct. Among the great Greek dramas which have survived, there is one play, the *Persae* of Æschylus, which is based on the events of the liberators' war against Persia, and in our own Elizabethan literature we cannot point to any single great work which reflects the incidents of the heroic struggle against Spain. Ordinarily, too, there will be a pause of years before that national energy which has fed upon great action finds expression in terms of imagination. It is only when the confused and painful shouting is over that we may hope to hear the poetic voices whose harmony consists above all things in order and restraint.

The reasons of this delay are not far to seek. We know that our everyday speech is simply the expression of those fugitive and broken thoughts and sentiments in which our everyday consciousness consists, and there is cause to think that poetry is the speech of the grander, more complex, and entire thoughts and emotions which are evolved but slowly and with difficulty in the painful processes of our consciousness; poetry is the expression of the highest and completest consciousness to which humanity can attain. Something of this sort, no doubt, was what Wordsworth meant when he spoke of the stuff of poetry as 'emotion recollected in tranquillity.' It is not likely, then, that in the course of this war any really great poem which deals with it will be produced. No single human mind can at present grasp comprehensively the significance of the business which is going on. The blaze of the conflagration dazzles and blinds our eyes, and if we cannot see, we cannot say.

Bearing this in mind, there is no cause for disappointment if in surveying the mass of spas-

modic verses which have been occasioned by the war we feel that they are unequal to the material with which they deal. It could not be otherwise. Even the most agile minded of our poets can at present hope to do no more than to seize some salient particular, to assimilate some partial and incomplete impression, and then give expression to it as best he may. The more limited his endeavour the greater his success is likely to be.

The poets who, greatly daring, have tried to be comprehensive and general are for the most part compelled to be imitative. Not that they necessarily imitate any particular poem or poet of the past, but that they seem to rely too much on the analogies of other days and other wars. They fall into the error of those gentlemen who, remembering the curious manifestations of popular enthusiasm at the time of the Boer War, motored down Picadilly on the night of the late memorable challenge to Germany, waving flags and blowing penny whistles; they met with an ill response, although the vast crowd was of one mind in favour of the war. There is no analogy between this war and the Boer War, there is even no complete analogy between this war and the Napoleonic wars, or the war of the Armada. We live in a different and more complex society, and we are convulsed with a difference; and so poems of the war which are but echoes of the past fail to convince us.

This quality of not altogether justifiable reminiscence detracts from the power of many of the poems which strive to express the nation's preparation before battle, the hour of quiet self-dedication which calls in the force of religious feeling to make more enduring the ardour of patriotism. So, for example, Mr. Henry Newbolt's verses called *The Vigil*, of which we quote two stanzas as an example, seem something of an anachronism, despite their considerable beauty of expression.

> England: where the sacred flame,
> Burns before the inmost shrine,
> Where the lips that love thy name,
> Consecrate their hopes and thine,
> Where the banners of thy dead,
> Weave their shadows overhead,
> Watch beside thine arms to-night,
> Pray that God defend the Right.
>
> So shalt thou when morning comes
> Rise to conquer or to fall,
> Joyful hear the rolling drums,
> Joyful hear the trumpets call,
> Then let memory tell thy heart:
> "England! what thou wert thou art!"
> Gird thee with thine ancient might,
> Forth! and God defend the Right!

Imitation as a cause of weakness is at work also here in India, in the case of the numerous lyrics which have seen the light in our press and elsewhere since the war began. Severe criticism would be out of place, but it should be remembered that while those who are Indians by birth may use the English language habitually in all the affairs of everyday, it is next to impossible that any not born to the use of this tongue should ever acquire that instinctive knowledge of almost imperceptible accent and sound values which is essential to the writer of effective verse. Hence we get such quaint rhymes and rythms as this.—

> Rajputs, Gurkhas, or Sikhs,
> Islams, all intermix.

The fact is that while the value of these tributes of Indian verse as the authentic outcome of a splendid loyalty must be patent to all, it would be foolish and insincere to praise them as literature. And the mystical prose-poetry of Mr. Tagore is unlikely to find in the war a fruitful source of inspiration.

Not that it must be imagined that India has a monopoly in war poetry which is technically or otherwise deficient; fearful examples might be culled from every quarter of the Empire, and from its very heart itself. This, for instance, comes from the *Daily Mail*.—

> Belgium concocted war,
> This deserved her fate,
> That's the blackest Teutonic lie,
> Published up to date.

And another bard, stirred no doubt by Miltonic examples, perpetrated the following blank verse line—

> Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, and Rangoon.

To turn to more exhilarating matter, let us examine a few of those poems which may claim the double merit of truth and melody. As has been hinted, these are generally to be found among the productions of those who have limited themselves to isolated phases and scattered impressions. How finely, for example Mr. Thomas Hardy has preserved for us this momentary glimpse of marching troops—

> What of the faith and fire within us,
> Men who march away,
> Ere the barncocks say,
> Night is growing grey,
> To hazards whence no tears can win us;
> What of the faith and fire within us,
> Men who march away;
>
> Nay we see well what we are doing,
> Though some may not see,

Dalliers as they be,
England's need are we;
Her distress would leave us rueing:
Nay. We see what we are doing,
Though some may not see.

He has caught it all; the physical conditions, with the dim light of dawn, the free and yet restrained swing of marching feet, and the spiritual atmosphere, the doubts that are dissipated as soon as born by the vehement assertion of truth.

Curious, but not to be neglected, is the fact that among these poems of a phase, the fullest appeal, the most complete and satisfying though not the greatest, achievements are to be found in verses that mock, that hate, that burn with bitter irony. What in its limited way could be better than Barry Pain on 'The Kaiser and God'?

Led by Wilhelm, as you tell,
God has done extremely well;
You with patronising nod
Show that you approve of God,
Kaiser face a question new—
This—does God approve of you?

And one later couplet must not be omitted:

Impious braggart, you forget;
God is not your conscript yet.

Swift himself achieved little that was better in verse than that ironic clash and conflict of ideas.

Rarely, but gladly, one recognises as one reads the inevitable phrase which is the product not of cleverness but of the mind drawn taut and tense by the need for expression. Here it is, for instance, crude perhaps and coarse, but truly stamped in the mint, when Mr. Hewlett says of the Kaiser that:—

—When this tyrant for too long
Hath shook the blood out of his ears
He may have learned the price of wrong.

And again, perhaps, in Mr. Watson's poem of the naval fight at Heligoland

Each rejoicing gun
Welcomed a foe at hand,
And thundering its delight,
Opened its mouth outright,
And bit them in the Bight,
The Bight of Heligoland.

The twisted, common pun, smacks properly of victory and fierce exultation over a strong foe hard smitten.

Too long to quote, but outstanding among these occasional verses, is Mr. Rudyard Kipling's 'For all we have and are.' It is outstanding because it unites, in a higher degree than most, the nobility of the general with the vivid quality of the particular. If we accept it as the best, or among the best, of verses yet produced in this time, it must be admitted that it is no more than the clearest and fullest in a chorus of discordant and often inarticulate voices. Yet would we have it otherwise? Tecnique may falter, and the cunning of expression fail, when confronted with this amazing welter of the nations, and yet there is a quality in many of these songs which it were ill to miss, and which calls to mind the words of that great Elizabethan Sir Philip Sidney, who protested—"I must confess my own barbarousness: I never heard the old song of 'Percy and Douglas,' that I found not my heart moved more than by a trumpet; and yet it is sung but by some blind crouder, with no rougher voyce then rude stile." It would ill become us now to be more censorious than he.

SHAKESPEARE'S CHART OF LIFE

BEING STUDIES OF

HAMLET, KING LEAR, OTHELLO AND MACBETH

BY THE REV. DR. WILLIAM MILLER, C.I.E.

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THE MEN OF THE MOMENT.

MR. DAVID LLOYD GEORGE.

No one who heard, or has read, Mr. Lloyd George's speech on the war of this year, at the Queen's Hall, London, on September the 19th, touching as it did the chords of irony, scorn, pathos and denunciation and ending with a passage of prophetic eloquence, can be indifferent to the name and fame of Lloyd George even if such a person ordinarily takes no interest in politics or politicians. Mr. Lloyd George, Chancellor of the Exchequer in Mr. Asquith's government, was born 51 years ago in Manchester and is the son of the late Mr. William George, Master of the Hope Street Unitarian School, Liverpool. Of his mother little is known except that she was the daughter of Mr. Richard Owen, a Baptist Minister. She was very religious and perhaps narrow in her views. Mr. William George died when Lloyd George was about two years of age, leaving little, a very little, for the upbringing of his family.

Mr. Geoffrey, a Liverpool Solicitor, a friend of Mr. William George, helped his widow to protect and realize the slender property bequeathed by Mr. George and was a friend in need, while Mrs. George's brother, Mr. Richard Lloyd, gave his sister and her children a home. As a boy Lloyd George was mischievous, and thoughtful beyond his years. Mrs. Lloyd George was always profoundly stirred by religious questions and her son grew up in an uncompromising non-conformist atmosphere—an atmosphere which has affected all his career. The village school in those days was under the care of the Church of England parson, and the squire was the visitor and condescended to hear the boys recite the Catechism, and young Lloyd George cherished hostile feelings against both of these formidable personages. Lloyd George later in life defeated the same squire in a political contest, but in his school days took an active part in the school in organising a strike, by maintaining absolute silence when questioned on the Catechism. It was a kind of passive resistance which when repeated, succeeded so well that both the Catechism and the great annual procession to church on Ash Wednesday were finally given up. Young David had decided to be a Solicitor and found it necessary to master the elements of French and Latin with the aid of a French grammar and a dictionary, and the encouragement and co-operation of his uncle, who was as ignorant as himself of French. Lloyd George managed to wade through the preliminary examination when 14 years old. On leaving the village school Mr Lloyd George entered University College Aberystwyth, and at 16 years of age was articled as a clerk in a Solicitor's Office. It was with the greatest difficulty that he paid his fees and obtained his law books and found money for his journey to London to pass his final examination. For five-and-a-half years he remained in the solicitor's office and he had to wait for two years before he could find the sum of three guineas to pay for his robes to get an audience at the Welsh Law Courts. He would probably have remained many years in an obscure position were it not that his opportunity came with what is known as the Slanfor Hill case, which was the result of the Rector of the Parish of Slanfor Hill refusing to permit the burial of a Non-Conformist in the family grave in the churchyard. Mr. Lloyd George sums up the case thus:—"The people came to me; I advised that the gates of the churchyard should be forced. They were forced. They were fined for trespass and litigation followed. By the time the struggle had come to an end my name was known all over the Principality." The Slanfor Hill case decided Mr. George to enter politics, and he fought and was returned for the Carnarvon Boroughs in 1889. The squire referred to earlier in this paper, Mr. Elliss Nanney, was the representative of the class and the creed with which the young politician had been brought into conflict from his very early years. He made his first public speech in London at the Metropolitan Tabernacle, and his maiden speech in the House of Commons concerned a clause in the Local Taxation Bill in which he obtained the insertion of Wales and a share for her in the grant of that Bill. Mr. Lloyd George was an outspoken critic of the Boer War and even dared to couch a lance against the late Mr. Chamberlain. He has fought his way up every rung of the political ladder without any of the adventitious influences which assist so many men to success. Down to the time of the formation of the Liberal Ministry Mr. Lloyd George had the reputation of being a brilliant lawyer and only that, but as President of the Board of Trade from 1906 to 1908, he proved beyond doubt his ability as an administrator who has succeeded in carrying out measures such as a drastic Merchants' Shipping Act, a Patents and Designs Act as well as other important legislations. His work as Chancellor of the Exchequer and his famous budgets are too well known to be agin re-counted,

PRINCE VON BULOW.

Prince Von Bulow is the one German statesman who enjoys a European reputation. His career is exceptional. The author of the "Men Around the Kaiser" tells us that Prince Bulow, now sixty-five, traces his ancestry back to the twelfth century. For generations his family has been conspicuously identified with war, religion, diplomacy, politics, literature, music, the arts, and all the great movements of Prussia and Germany. Prior to his appointment as Foreign Secretary in Berlin in 1896, Bulow had a unique international experience at the German Legations and Embassies at St. Petersburg, Paris, Rome and Bukharest. He has won many a diplomatic bout in his exceptional career. He brought about the downfall of M. Delcasse from the French Foreign Office which the Kaiser thought to be the deepest humiliation put upon France since Sedan. On the same day in June 1905 the Kaiser raised Bulow to the dignity of a Prince of Prussia.

As all things human, his triumph was only the prelude to his own fall. The Finance Reform Bill, coupled with Bulow's insistence that the great landed classes should be made to share the burden of the proposed Inheritance Tax, drove the aggrarian Aristocracy into revolt against him. The "November Storm" of 1908 arising out of Bulow's fateful journey to Potsdam to extort from his Sovereign Master the pledge of "greater reserve in the discussion and conduct of the nation's affairs," brought about the foregone conclusion. And Prince Bernhard Von Bulow, the fourth Chancellor of the German Empire relinquished office on July 14, 1909.

Chancellors have come and gone since Bismarck, but Bulow has brilliantly impressed himself upon the generation as much by his utterances as by his supreme gift of silence. That Sphynx-like reserve and unruffled disposition have stood him in good stead. He has had his days of Parliamentary triumphs. One of the most suave of men, gifted with a magnetic presence, a master of what Lord Morley called 'the tedious art of managing men,' he delights in graceful utterances, repartee, imagery and rhetorical appeals seasoned with appropriate citations. He understands the psychology of the Kaiser and the German people, but he is not without defects in his estimation of other peoples and foreign policies. His own statement of the German standpoint in his "Imperial Germany" is a succinct account of his grasp of the German psychology and he foresees the deadly conflict that was yet brewing in the heart of his nation.

A conflict between Germany and England would be a great misfortune for both countries, for Europe and for mankind in general. Ever since the day when I undertook the affairs of the Foreign Office I have been convinced that such a conflict would never come to pass:—

i. If we built a fleet which could not be attacked without very grave risk to the attacking party.

ii. If we did not, beyond that, indulge in undue and unlimited ship-building and armaments, and did not overheat our marine boiler.

iii. If we allowed no power to injure our reputation or our dignity.

iv. If we allowed nothing to make an irremediable breach between us and England. That is why I always repelled any impertinent attack which was likely to hurt our feelings as a nation, from whatever quarter it came, but resisted all temptations to interfere in the Boer War as that would have dealt English self-esteem a wound that would not heal.

v. If we kept calm and cool, and neither injured England nor ran after her.

As for France and Germany, Prince Bulow has long anticipated the war. He at any rate has had no shadow of a doubt as to the inevitability of the conflict.

"The irreconcilability of France is a factor that we must reckon with in our political calculations. It seems to me weakness to entertain the hope of a real and sincere reconciliation with France so long as we have no intention of giving up Alsace Lorraine. And there is no such intention in Germany."

A believer in the invincibility of the German arms on land, he has other hopes for his Fatherland.

To make it possible to build a sufficient fleet was the foremost and greatest task of German policy after Bismarck's retirement; a task with which I also was immediately confronted when on June 28, 1897 at Kiel, on board the *Hohenzollern*, I was entrusted by H. M. the Emperor, with the conduct of foreign affairs, on the same day and the same spot on which twelve years later I handed in my resignation.

Von Bulow's Germany is not the Germany of Bismarck. Bismarck held that the "basis of a sound and sensible world policy is a strong, national home policy." Bulow went a step further. "If the course of events demands that we transcend the limits of Bismarck's aims then we must do so." Witness this declaration:—

If we wish to gain the position in the world that is due to us, we must rely on our sword, renounce all weakly visions of peace, and eye the dangers surrounding us with resolute and unflinching courage.

Prince Von Bulow married an illustrious Italian Countess who is also a great favourite at the Court. So the Kaiser has sent this great statesman to rally the Italian, to the German cause.

H. H. THE AGA KHAN.

Prince Aga Khan is eminently the man of the moment. On the outbreak of the Great War in Europe the Prince gave his counsel of loyalty to the British Raj to his followers in every part of the world. In fact the Prince is the natural leader of the Moslem world and he exercises this sacred right with becoming dignity and discretion. He is the descendant of the house of the Prophet of Islam through Fatima, the only child of Mahommet. He is the head of the great sect of the Ismailians, who are scattered over all parts of the world and in the Shiite world occupies a unique position. His ancestors founded the dynasty of the Fatimite Caliphs in the tenth century whose influence in the then world was unrivalled alike in intellectual as in the material resources. The Aga Khan's claim to Persia is no less deep He has a great hold over the Persians through marriage and his claims to connections with the early kings of Persia are recognized. In the last century his grandfather was about to succeed to the throne of Persia. But fate decreed otherwise and he sought refuge in India. Now begins the Prince's association with the fortunes of the British whose cause he has espoused with such loyal enthusiasm. His loyalty is traditional. His grandfather cast in his lot with the British in India and fought valiantly in the Afghan and Sind wars. The British Government recognized the help by offering "the honoured Ally" a political pension and the title of His Highness. And the grandson of the First Aga Khan has kept the tradition in the very spirit of the old compact. He volunteered to serve as a private in any infantry in the present war.

The sudden uprising of the Turks has been a severe trial to His Highness. But the Aga Khan stuck to his principle, and the message he sent to his innumerable followers all over the world is an inspiring record. He is angry with Germany and sorry for Turkey.

H. H. the Aga Khan started on a mission to Egypt and India, at the instance of H. M. King George. No one is better fitted for this work, none can do it more thoroughly. He has done his work in Egypt and is full of lively impressions of the land of the Pharoahs. In India, as the head of the Ismaili Mahomedans and President of the All-India Moslem League, his influence is supreme among his co-religionists.

M. DELCASSE.

Foremost among the politicians of France, M. Delcasse's presence as the French Minister of War was enough to exasperate the Germans. The Germans could tolerate anything but this virile, fearless and acute minister. M. Delcasse has played a great rôle in the diplomatic history of the continent. A warm supporter of the *Triple Entente* it must rejoice his soul to find the Allies marching shoulder to shoulder against the common enemy. He was Colonial Minister in 1894, and Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1898. But this latter office he had to relinquish owing to German pressure. The Germans practically demanded his resignation at the threat of war, which France, though unwilling, had yet to comply with. But how France has her revenge, and what sort of man is her Minister? M. Delcasse combines the high intelligence and solid instruction of old France with the temper and and the spirit of the new. He is now the guardian of national honour and an essential bulwark of his country. It was he, observes a writer in the *Fortnightly* shortly after the war, that fully realised that the friendship and support of England were indispensable to France for the proper development and protection of her world-interests. "It was he that obtained for his nation a free hand in Morocco and neutralised all substantial interests there. The 'Algeciras Convention' was a bitter lesson to him and brought home to him the necessity of strength. He helped to realise in Parliament the programme of two ships every year and carried out the concentration of the naval forces in the Mediterranean where things were complicated by the growing navies of Italy and Austria. He has often been accused of too blind a faith in Russia, himself being *persona grata* with the Czar's Government." He is, continues the writer, a confirmed enemy of the Germans and their bullyism, and if his disregard of Germany at the time of Algeciras really caused a danger to his country, it was because other departments of the State were not directed with the same fearless energy and high efficiency as his own. With his rigid logical argument, and brilliant oratorical attacks, and with his motto 'renunciation is abdication'—we might well be satisfied that he will enable France to rise equal to its present crisis and hold up her head with as great an honour as ever.

PRESIDENT WILSON.

It has been said that President Wilson possesses "the noblest mind and broadest sympathy of all who have aspired to the Presidential chair since the election of the author of the Declaration of Independence." For, in fact few things in political history have been more dramatic than the immediate consequence of Dr. Wilson's entry into public life. He is an intellectual giant compared with the bulk of American politicians. He is a masterful personality in the world of politics; and in private life he is essentially a laughing philosopher.

Dr. Woodrow Wilson was born at Stanton, in Virginia, in 1858. He graduated at Princeton when he was twenty-one and proceeded to higher degrees at the famous John Hopkins University and the University of Virginia. For a little while he practised at the bar. But in 1890 he took up an academic career and was appointed to the Chair of Jurisprudence and Politics at Princeton. Twelve years later he became President of his own University. He has thus passed fifteen years of his life in the lecture room and eight more as President of the Princeton University

In 1910 he became Governor of New Jersey and with his vivid grasp of ideas and a sensible turn for practicality he slowly won the heart of the Democrats. He entered politics with an endowment of culture and philosophy and a character far superior to that of the current "bosses" in America. As Mr. A. G. Gardiner says "he has what Mr. Chamberlain never had, what Mr. Lloyd George, with all his fine intuitions and democratic sympathies, has not —a considered philosophy of politics. It is a philosophy warmed with a generous humanity and a sincere vision." But above all he is a practical visionary:—

> I am accused of being a Radical. If to seek to go to the root is to be a Radical, a Radical I am. After all, everything that flowers in beauty in the air of heaven draws its fairness, its vigor from its roots; nothing living can blossom into fruitage unless through flourishing stalks deep-planted in the common soil. Up from that soil, up from the silent bosom of the earth rise the currents of life and energy. Up from the common soil, up from the great heart of the people, rise joyously to-day streams of hope and determination that are bound to renew the face of the earth in glory. I tell you that the so-called Radicalism of our time is simply the effort of nature to release the generous energies of our people. This great American people is at the bottom just, virtuous and hopeful; the roots of its being are in the soil of what is lovely, pure and of good report; and the need of the hour is just that Radicalism that will clear a way for he realization of the aspirations of a sturdy race.

M. ADOLPHE MAX.

When the history of the War comes to be written there is sure to be a page recording the heroism of the Burgomaster of Brussels. He has proved to the world that heroism is not confined to the battlefield. The first citizen of a conquered capital, he mastered the Prussian Bully with his wit which proved more than a match for the deadliest of armaments. King Albert fought with his sword, but this great civilian stood by his post with no more weapons than his tact and his smile. When the Germans made their famous parade march on Brussels "the little burgomaster could not be prevented from riding at the head of the heartless procession to show that he was not a captive, but the unwilling host of intruding guests."

Adolphe Max was originally on the staff of *L'Independence Belge* and a member of the Liberal Organisation of Belgium. He then became advocate of the Court of Appeal and entered politics. Though far too young for the high office, he was in 1909 elected Burgomaster of Brussels as a Moderate Liberal candidate.

The Burgomaster's wonderful understanding of the character of the people of Belgium gave him the happiest opportunity of negotiating with the invaders on their behalf. For weeks, with the spirit of the "passive resister," he defied the haughty intruder with his magnificent diplomacy. The Burgomaster's temper, discretion and good humour saved for some time the destruction of the beautiful city.

And the citizens of Brussels knew their man and carried out his commands with military discipline. It is pathetic to read the courageous counsels of the Burgomaster to his fellow citizens on the approach of the enemy. With patriotic courage he bade them be Belgians at heart and never betray their cause, nor ruin themselves by vain molestations. To this appeal he added: "As long as I am alive and at liberty I will protect with all my strength the rights and dignities of my fellow citizens. * * * Fellow citizens, whatever happens listen to the voice of your Burgomaster and support and maintain him. He will not betray your confidence."

He proved as true as his word. And the Germans fearing his tremendous influence found a pretext to arrest and imprison him. But the heroism of the Burgomaster in these trying times stands in clear relief amidst all the pathos of the piteous story of Belgium.

ADMIRAL PRINCE LOUIS OF BATTENBERG.

MR. LLOYD GEORGE AS ADMIRAL NELSON.

LORD FISHER.

MR. BONAR LAW.

MR. JOHN REDMOND.

M. ADOLPHE MAX.

PRESIDENT WILSON

H. H. THE AGA KHAN.

PRINCE LICHNOWSKY.

PRINCE VON BULOW.

KRUPP VON BOHLEN.

MR. J. E. REDMOND.

John Edward Redmond, M. P. the leader of the Nationalist Party in Ireland is the son of the late W. A. Redmond, M. P. he was educated in Trinity College, Dublin and passed out as Barrister from Gray's Inn in 1886. He entered Parliament in 1881, and came under the influence of Charles Stewart Parnell whose cloak he now wears. Mr. Redmond is the possessor of polished manners and is a typical example of a thorough Irish gentleman of the squire class. Mr. Parnell, though he valued Redmond as a fellow-worker and supporter, had no idea of his talents and capacity as a Party leader. It was only when the Parnell *fiasco* occurred that John Redmond came to the front. The Irish party was divided as to the leadership of Parnell, the majority being against Parnell thinking that the claims of Ireland were greater than loyalty to Parnell. John Redmond was on the side of the minority who were led by Parnell. The fierce controversy that resulted from this division of views ended with Parnell's sudden death and John Redmond became leader of the minority and from that time has demonstrated his capacity for a Parliamentary leader's position. While John Redmond was the leader of the minority party John Dillon led the majority side. Later on, John Dillon saw the weakness of a divided party and refusing to be re-elected, John Redmond by universal consent assumed the leadership which he has held so ably and with so much tact. A man of ample private means Mr. Redmond devotes all his time to politics, and the House of Commons has come to recognise his influence. He has the confidence of his countrymen in England and Ireland and of his compatriots in Scotland and the United States. His moderation and good sense in the Ulster Crisis has been recognised and is in remarkable contrast with the theatrical and melodramatic c nduct of Sir Edward Carson, while his leadership and loyalty to Great Britain as a whole, during the present war has raised him in the estimation of the whole country. As an orator he has a melodious utterance. He balances his sentences with consummate skill and is often quite brilliant in his phraseology. He is undoubtedly a very eloquent speaker, His voice is of considerable strength and volume with a variety of intonation which rescues it from monotony. John Redmond is still young and has a great future before him.

KRUPP VON BOHLEN.

When Armageddon descended on Europe the one name that was in the lips of all was Krupp. And Krupp is a national institution in Germany, an institution as sacred as the House of the Hohenzollerns. For half a century, fifty-two war offices and general staffs throughout the world have fed the factory fat. We are told that twenty-three states in Europe, eighteen in America, six in Asia and five in Africa are permanently on the list of Krupp's purchasers. "Since the Great Exhibition at London in 1851," says the author of "Men Around the Kaiser," when an obscure Rhenish steel-maker from Essen electrified the military universe with a pounder of flawless cast steel the German Army and Navy have brought 29,000 Krupp guns." And these are to-day thundering from the ramparts of the German lines.

Mr. Frederick William Wile, the *Daily Mail* correspondent in Berlin, describes Dr. Krupp Von Bohlen as a scholarly-looking man, youthful and of modest bearing and courtly manner. "He is the husband of the 'Cannon queen,' and managing director of the vast arsenal of which she is the sole owner. But he has since ceased to be simply the man who married 'the greatest fortune in Germany.' He is in reality the master of Essen and a worthy leader of the greatest industrial organization in the world. Says Mr. Wile, "He has proved that he is not an accident. The 75,000 members of the Krupp staff and the community of 300,000 souls whom they represent look up to Krupp Von Bohlen with the same spirit of reverential loyalty which inspired three generations of workmen to regard the Krupps as their liege lords. They too would be ready to follow where Krupp Von Bohlen leads, behind the guns and the impenetrable armour they themselves have forged."

Mr. Wile gives a vivid description of the great organization at Essen. The picture shows the gigantic character of the enterprise.

These great works of the house of Krupps are the symbol of the Teutonic spirit of enterprise, organization and efficiency. The teachings of Nietszche and Trietschke are thus completed by the House of Krupps whose engines of destruction are now thundering on the banks of the Ypres and the Marne and from the ramparts of Metz and Konigsburg.

PRINCE LICHNOWSKY.

Some time ago it was announced that Prince Lichnowsky, the German Ambassador at the Court of St. James was, by order of the Kaiser, in disgrace in Berlin. The cause of this imperial disfavour is presumably Prince Lichnowsky's inability to anticipate the British participation in the continental war. The Prince is a peace-loving gentleman of high social standing and intellectual attainments and a diplomat of clear headedness and common sense. If he did not warn the Kaiser of the British intervention, he was perhaps as ignorant of the unscrupulous methods of the German War Office. He did not believe that his Fatherland would violate the neutrality of Belgium.

Prince Karl Maximilan Lichnowsky was appointed ambassador in October, 1912 in succession to the late Baron Marshall. Fully recognising the inevitable rivalry between Great Britain and Germany, Prince Lichnowsky was always aware of the difficulties of the problem alike in its technical and political bearing. He had no illusions on naval politics. He was painfully conscious of Britain's supremacy on the sea which he would fain transfer to his Fatherland. But he knew also that that was a dream. From time to time he struck upon the knotty problem in various ways. Six years ago he found fault with British statesmen and used very strong words against them. He called the cry to improve the navy but a mere bogey to awaken England from her decadence. But then he changed his mind in four years and there was no warmer friend of England than the Prince. He actually defended Britain's right to possess a mighty fleet.

Indeed the advent of Prince Lichnowsky in London was highly appreciated. For unlike many a German, the Prince was the most sociable of men, lived among London society and won the esteem of the *elite* of the London world. His charming manners and his easy disposition made him quite at home in England. He was obviously for an Anglo-German *Entente* based on "mutual confidence and common aims." Only he was searching for a *modus vivendi* for a happy coalition. But his dream came to an end abruptly. While he was yet wondering what to do, the German army was half-way in Belgium and a considerable part of the world ablaze with the cry of war.

LORD FISHER

The recall of Lord Fisher as the First Sea Lord of the Admiralty was only a matter of course. He is the Kitchener of the Navy and the nation and the navy alike are grateful to him for his active participation at this grave crisis. In spite of his burden of years the navy can think of no more fitting chief to lead it in the ensuing adventure against the German marauders. He is deemed the right man in the right place.

But his acceptance of this high office is associated with another incident which is somewhat of a sad recollection to the British Navy and the British Nation. And that is the inevitable departure of his illustrious predecessor. It is sad to think that the accident of birth and rigours of what has become a race war should have deprived the British Navy of the services of so eminent a sailor as Prince Louis of Battenburg. Both the King and Mr. Winston Churchill have testified to the magnificent services of this sailor Prince. But when once His Royal Highness decided to quit the service which he held with such honour and distinction, the next choice was almost a popular demand for the good old "Jacky Fisher," then in his well-earned retirement.

Lord Fisher's characteristics are known throughout the Empire and this grim old seaman will take care of the German Navy and teach them the true significance of "The Day." He is of the type of the old English captains—Drake and Hawkins and Rodney. A writer in the *World's Work* compares his sayings to the aphorisms of Frederick the Great. In daring and persistence he is unequalled. Why should we be reticent about his ruthlessness? He is a match for the German. Here is his own description of a speech of his at the Hague Conference in 1899, which our English contemporary has aptly quoted :—

"The humanising of war! You might as well talk of humanising Hell! When a silly ass at the Hague got up and talked about the amenities of civilised warfare, putting your prisoners' feet in hot water and giving them gruel, my reply, I regret to say, was considered totally unfit for publication. As if war could be civilised! If I am in command when war breaks out, I shall issue as my commands:

"'The essence of war is violence. Moderation in war is imbecility. Hit first; hit hard; hit everywhere.'"

Lord Fisher says: "I think the finest epitaph I know is that of one of Nelson's captains: 'Death found him fighting.'"

It will be a hot day for the German Navy to deal with such a man.

LORD HALDANE.

The Right Hon'ble Richard Burdon Haldane, First Viscount of Clounden F. R. S. Kt., Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain since 1912, member of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, P.C.LL.D., Rector of Edinburgh University, Chancellor of the University of Bristol, is the son of the late Robert Haldane of Clounden W. S. and of Mary Elizabeth Burdon Sandersen. He was educated at the Edinburgh Academy and at the Edinburgh and Gottingen Universities. From 1892—94 he filled the place of Gifford Lecturer in St. Andrew's University. He entered Parliament in 1885, as member for Haddingtonshire, Lord Haldane was born in 1856. At Edinburgh University he was phenomenally proficient in philosophy and at Gottingen he eagerly absorbed the doctrines of the great German thinkers Kant, Hegel, Fichte and Schopenhauer. He speaks German like a native and, when there, made a careful study of the German system of education.

In 1877, young Haldane decided to go in for the study of Law and read in Chamber's and became Barrister-at-law in 1879, and Queen's Council in 1890. His opportunity did not come till he was 24 years of age and, although for the first year or two of practice his income was limited to two figures for the year—for he had no influence and no solicitor friends—before five years of work he had established a reputation and when only 33 years of age took silk. From that time his income was beyond all expectations. He is known to have earned £15,000 in one year refusing £5,000 worth of further demands. His knowledge is declared to be encyclopedic, his labour untiring and his versatility astonishing. His only recreation except on rare occasions when he engages in a walk on a Scotch moor is variety in his occupation. Of athletic build, his face is large and massive, the only sign of a student about him being the colourless whiteness of his complexion. He has been called the "Brain of the Empire" and one of his chief characteristics is that he can manage with only four hours of sleep out of the twenty-four.

His legal practice has not been confined to England and he has been retained by Colonial Governments to conduct their cases. It is said that on one occasion, within the space of a fortnight, he argued appeals in connection with the Privy Council from Burma (Buddhist Law), New-zealand (Maori Custom), the Cape (Roman Dutch Law), Bombay (Mahomedan Law), the Channel Islands (Italian French and Roman Law) and Bengal (Hindu Law.) His studies of the German educational system stood him in extraordinary good stead as President of the Board of Education. He is a strong advocate for higher education, that, in his opinion, being the only basis of efficiency and he never was tired of pointing to Germany as an example. He has rendered service to every possible kind of committee and in 1905, accepted the position of Secretary of State for War which he held for seven years. As War Lord he ceaselessly urged the construction of the best possible weapons of destruction and interested himself greatly in the study of projectiles. His opinion of all the defence measures of England has been that the Navy is the main arm of protection and he was insistent in recommending that merit and ability and not seniority should be the principle in selecting Admirals. Mr. Haldane when War Minister cherished the idea of a National Army formed of the manhood of the country, trained and organised on volunteer lines—such for instance as Earl Kitchener is at this eleventh hour organising for employment against the enemy. Personally, Lord Haldane is urbanity itself while he impresses every one with whom he comes in contact, with a reserve force which is colossal. Lord Haldane is a practised speaker and has a marvellous knack of marshalling his facts and building up arguments born of his legal work. He has been known to speak for 2½ hours without faltering for a word, or referring to his notes. His oratory on the other hand is in no way noteworthy. Some Parliamentary orators prefer the stimulating atmosphere of the House of Commons, to the rigid calm of that of the House of Lords, but Lord Haldane is not deterred from saying what he has to say by any considerations of what his audience is composed. He has something to say and he says it. As Colonial Secretary, or as Foreign Secretary, Lord Haldane would have done better perhaps than as War Minister, but he has attained what in early life he was ambitious of securing the Lord High Chancellorship of England. Lord Haldane has been, during his busy life, a prolific author. "Essays in Parliamentary Criticism," the "Life of Adam Smith," "Schopenhauer's World as Will and Idea," "Education and Empire," "the Path-way to Reality" are some of his better known works. Lord Haldane has never married. He is no slave to party, however, but a philosopher and broad-minded student of affairs.

MR. BONAR LAW.

The Right Hon'ble Andrew Bonar Law, leader of the opposition in the House of Commons since 1911, is the son of a Presbyterian Minister, the Rev. James Law of New Brunswick, Canada, where he was born six and fifty years ago. His mother was also Scotch and belonged to Glasgow. Mr. Law takes his name after Dr. Andrew Bonar, author of the "Life of Dr. McCheyn," a book which his father much admired. When only twelve years old he crossed the Atlantic and became a student in the High School at Glasgow which he left, when 16 years of age, to join the firm of William Hedstone and Sons, Iron Merchants in Glasgow, of which his uncle was the head. Twelve years later he became partner in the firm of William Jacks and Co., of Glasgow. From 1900 to 1906 he was Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade, and in 1906 entered Parliament for Blackfriars, a division of Glasgow. He represented the Dulwich Division of Camberwell from 1906-1910 and in that year contested the seat at Manchester. He has been Chairman of the Glasgow Iron Trade Association, and when he became Leader of the Opposition in 1911 "all the world wondered," for Mr. Bonar Law has not had the adventitious support of birth or high influence. He is a successful business man who has made a competence at the iron trade. He is a supporter of women suffrage, and a total abstainer and in early years was a Sunday School teacher. His present position is all the more extraordinary. He is an excellent foil to his brilliant predecessor Mr. Balfour, who is an aristocrat to the finger tips. Mr. Bonar Law is a man of the people with a tinge of the argumentative swashbuckler in his methods. At the last coronation he became a Privy Councillor and on Mr. Balfour's retirement Leader of the Opposition.

Never in history perhaps, has a man of Mr. Bonar Law's birth and antecedents filled such a position in the Tory ranks. Mr. Law married Miss Annie Rooley, who made him an affectionate and charming wife as long as she lived. The following is a pen-picture of Mr. Bonar Law when he was 21 years old—"Fair-haired, fair-complexioned, gentle of manner, quiet of voice, with a singularly winning smile he was possessed of an imperturbably good temper and a strong sense of humour and there was never any one more careful of others' pleasure nor more careless of small personal worries or grievances." In Parliamentary debate his gentleness of manner and voice has on more than in one instance been forgotten. Mr Bonar Law's chief characteristic is thoroughness—he has an infinite capacity for taking pains. The pen-picture of 30 years ago differs somewhat from what Mr. Law is now; "He is a type by himself" says a writer: "Deep-sunk eyes, a big square jaw, an upright forehead, a straight mouth covered by somewhat drooping moustache, give at first glance an impression of a man deeply reflective, touched with melancholy but dominated by the recognition of the necessity for strong and forcible action. Here is rather the man who, having convinced himself that a certain course of action is necessary, will work without personal ostentation with a certain grim ruthlessness until his object is all attained." He is an advocate for Tariff reform, is against Disendowment and the Irish Nationalist domination, Home rule and disunion of the British Empire and against the Petrol tax and in favour of the Cocoa duties. He is absolutely against the policy of Mr. Asquith. When he assumed the leadership, he stated that it was not necessary that a new leader should frame a new policy. He said "my only hope of being of service to our party is by urging that party to move straight forward without haste, but without rest, to the goal towards which we aim. That goal is, in the first place, to get rid of a Government which has from the first been a danger to the country and which is now tearing down the destructive path with ever-increasing velocity." This last sentence is not very clear, but the meaning of Mr. Law is not difficult to formulate. He is a lucid and trenchant speaker, and he would not have been chosen for leadership were it not for his powers of speech. "As a Parliamentary and public speaker he possesses a gift unseen since the late Lord Salisbury—that of delivering a sustained and closely reasoned argument or attack for an hour without a single note. In part the result of an astonishing memory, in part of great intellectual quickness, this faculty as it is developed by practice, cannot fail to place him in the forefront of British Parliamentary speakers," says Lord Curzon.

On the war breaking out Mr. Bonar Law has not opposed Mr. Asquith's Government on any question affecting the operations necessary for the war. Liberal and Conservative have stood shoulder to shoulder like brothers in determining to fight the war to a finish.

DR. RABINDRANATH TAGORE.

EMILE VERHAEREN: THE FAMOUS BELGIAN POET.

Mr. RUDYARD KIPLING.

POEMS ON THE WAR.

THE LAUREATE ON THE WAR.

The following poem by Robert Bridges, the Poet Laureate, without title or heading, appeared in *The Times* of August 8:

Thou careless, awake!
  Thou peacemaker fight!
Stand, England, for honour,
  And God guard the Right!

Thy mirth lay aside,
  Thy cavil and play:
The foe is upon thee,
  And grave is the day.

The monarch Ambition
  Hath harnessed his slaves;
But the folk of the Ocean
  Are free as the waves.

For Peace thou art armed,
  Thy Freedom to hold:
Thy Courage as iron,
  Thy Good-faith as gold.

Through Fire, Air, and Water,
  Thy trial must be:
But they that love life best,
  Die gladly for thee.

The Love of their mothers,
  Is strong to command;
The fame of their fathers,
  Is might to their hand.

Much suffering shall cleanse thee;
  But thou through the flood,
Shalt win to Salvation,
  To Beauty through blood.

Up, careless, awake!
  Ye peacemakers, fight!
England stands for Honour,
  God defend the Right!

TO ENGLAND.

Mr. Maurice Hewlett has won a conspicuous place amongst living writers of romance by his Italian sketches. His call for English arms appeared in *The Times*:

Fight, since thou must; strike quick and fierce
  So when this tyrant for too long
Hath shook the blood out of his ears
  He may have learned the price of wrong.

Let him learn this, that the due grief
  Of his own vice he cannot ban
By outrage of a highway thief;
  Let him remember the Corsican

Whom England only durst not dread
  By sea or shore, but faced alone,
Nor stayed for pity of her dead
  Until the despot's day was done.

Strike, England, quickly, make an end
  Of him who seeks to trade with thee,
If he would bargain for thy friend,
  What would he trade for Liberty?

THE SEARCHLIGHTS.

Mr. Alfred Noyes is a poet of rare distinction, his verses famed for a delicate aroma peculiarly his own. These lines were prompted by General Von Bernhardi's amazing dictum that "Political morality differs from individual morality, because there is no power above the State:"

Shadow by shadow, stripped for fight
  The lean black cruisers search the sea.
Night-long their level shafts of light
  Revolve, and find no enemy.
Only they know each leaping wave
May hide the lightning, and their grave.

And in the land they guard so well
  Is there no silent watch to keep?
An age is dying, and the bell
  Rings midnight on a vaster deep.
But over all its waves, once more,
The searchlights move, from shore to shore.

And captains that we thought were dead,
  And dreamers that we thought were dumb,
And voices that we thought were fled,
  Arise, and call us, and we come:
And "search in thine own soul," they cry,
"For there, too, lurks thine enemy."

Search for the foe in thine own soul,
  The sloth, the intellectual pride;
The trivial jest that veils the goal
  For which our fathers lived and died;
The lawless dreams, the cynic Art,
That rend thy nobler self apart.

Not far, not far into the night,
  These level swords of light can pierce;
Yet for her faith does England fight,
  Her faith in this our universe,
Believing Truth and Justice draw
From founts of everlasting law;

The law that rules the stars, our stay,
  Our compass through the world's wide sea,
The one sure light, the one sure way,
  The one firm base of Liberty;
The one firm road that men have trod
Through chaos to the throne of God.

Therefore a Power above the State,
  The unconquerable Power returns.
The fire, the fire that made her great
  Once more upon her altar burns.
Once more redeemed and healed and whole,
She moves to the Eternal goal.

THE BRITISH SOLDIER.

"I worked in a great shipyard by the Clyde,
There came a sudden word of wars declared,
Of Belgium, peaceful, helpless, unprepared,
Asking our aid; I joined the ranks, and died.
I gave my life for freedom—This I know:
For those who bade me fight had told me so."

Mr. W. N. Ewer in *The Nation*.

MR. RUDYARD KIPLING.

Mr. Rudyard Kipling is the poet of the hour. The stern realism and the note of utter modernism he displays have won for him the highest praise. The following three poems of Mr. Kipling are certain to appeal most to the youthful and the energetic of the age:—

HYMN BEFORE ACTION.

The earth is full of anger,
  The seas are dark with wrath,
The Nations in their harness
  Go up against our path:
Ere yet we loose the legions—
  Ere yet we draw the blade,
Jehovah of the Thunders,
  Lord God of Battles, aid!

High lust and froward bearing,
  Proud heart, rebellious brow—
Deaf ear and soul uncaring,
  We seek Thy mercy now!
The sinner that forswore Thee,
  The fool that passed Thee by,
Our times are known before Thee—
  Lord, grant us strength to die!

From panic, pride, and terror,
  Revenge that knows no rein,
Light haste and lawless error,
  Protect us yet again.
Cloak Thou our undeserving,
  Make firm the shuddering breath,
In silence and unswerving
  To taste Thy lesser death!

Ah! Mary, pierced with sorrow,
  Remember, reach and save
The soul that comes to-morrow
  Before the God that gave;
Since each was born of woman,
  For each hath utter need—
True comrade and true foeman—
  Madonna, intercede!

E'en now their vanguard gathers,
  E'en now we face the fray—
As Thou didst help our fathers,
  Help Thou our host to-day!
Fulfilled of signs and wonders,
  In life, in death made clear—
Jehovah of the Thunders,
  Lord God of Battles, hear!

RECESSIONAL.

God of our fathers, known of old,
  Lord of our far-flung battle-line,
Beneath whose awful Hand we hold
  Dominion over palm and pine—
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget!

The tumult and the shouting dies;
  The captains and the kings depart:
Still stands Thine ancient sacrifice,
  An humble and a contrite heart.
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget!

Far-called, our navies melt away;
  On dune and headland sinks the fire;
Lo, all our pomp of yesterday
  Is one with Nineveh and Tyre!
Judge of the Nations, spare us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget!

If, drunk with sight of power, we loose
  Wild tongues that have not Thee in awe,
Such boastings as the Gentiles use,
  Of lesser breeds without the Law—
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget!

For heathen heart that puts her trust
  In reeking tube and iron shard,
All valiant dust that builds on dust,
  And guarding, calls not Thee to guard.
For frantic boast and foolish word—
Thy Mercy on Thy People, Lord!

"FOR ALL WE HAVE AND ARE."

For all we have and are,
  For all our children's fate,
Stand up and meet the war.
  The Hun is at the gate!
Our world has passed away
  In wantonness o'erthrown.
There is nothing left to-day
  But steel and fire and stone.

  Though all we knew depart,
    The old commandments stand;
  "In courage keep your heart,
    In strength lift up your hand."

Once more we hear the word
  That sickened earth of old:—
"No law except the sword
  Unsheathed and uncontrolled."
Once more it knits mankind,
  Once more the nations go
To meet and break and bind
  A crazed and driven foe.

Comfort, content, delight—
  The ages' slow-bought gain
They shrivelled in a night,
  Only ourselves remain
To face the naked days
  In silent fortitude
Through perils and dismays
  Renewed and re-renewed.

  Though all we made depart
    The old commandments stand:—
  "In patience keep your heart,
    In strength lift up your hand."

No easy hopes or lies
  Shall bring us to our goal,
But iron sacrifice
  Of body, will, and soul.
There is but one task for all—
  For each one life to give.
Who stands if freedom fall?
  Who dies if England live?

TO THE BELGIAN NATION.

The wanton inhumanity towards Belgium has naturally provoked the bitterest revulsion of feeling against Germany. Mr. William Sturgeon's patriotic poem is one of the many that have appeared in the Press on behalf of the gallant people:

Heroic Belgian Nation,
  Ungovernably bold,
Stand as your fathers would have stood,
  Your Belgic Sires of old!
Stand as a wall of fire,
  And guard your native land;
Fear not the German war-god,
  Fear not the Austrian's hand.

Britannia's heroes come,
  To aid you in your cause,
And in the fiery conflict,
  Her sword brave France still draws.
Dieu et mon droit;
  Is still the battle-cry;
God help thee in thy righteous cause,
  To conquer, or to die.

Dash forward, sons of Gaul!
  Scatter the German lines,
Break thro' the Austrian phalanx;
  Your fame in battle shines!
Britannia's sons, go forward!
  The Red—the White—the Blue,
For in the cause of Liberty,
  Ye are for ever true.

The Cossack and the Russian
  Are hastening from afar,
To battle for the rights of Man,
  And mingle in the war.
The sturdy Jap has buckled on
  The good sword to his side,
And the hardy sons of India,
  But for the word abide!

Woe to the German Legion,
  Woe to the crown of pride,
Woe to the Austrian phalanx,
  Your shame where shall ye hide?
Humanity's high sacred cause,
  Upheld shall ever stand,
And Truth and Justice reign supreme,
  Thro' every clime and land!

NAUGHTY BELGIUM.

Even in war there is fun enough for a penman. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* states that Belgium intrigued with England and France to drag Germany into war. Here is Jemmie Pope's skit in the *Daily Mail*:

Big bully Belgium,
  Breathing blood and flame,
Crafty as a serpent
  In a cunning game,

Sent a note to England,
  Sent a note to France:
"Let us crush the Fatherland
  While we have the chance!"

Poor little Germany,
  Gentle land of peace,
Seeking the Millennium,
  When armaments shall cease;

Rather grieved than angry,
  Called her sons to fight,
To protect their Fatherland,
  As was only right.

Hurry with the whitewash,
  Pour it out in streams!
Bleach the ravaged country,
  Louvain, Antwerp, Rheims!

Belgium concocted war,
  Thus deserve her fate!
That's the blackest Teutonic lie
  Published up to date.

THE CRY OF THE BELGIAN CHILDREN.

Mr. A. R. Hamilton's cry of the children in desolate Belgium published in the columns of the *Daily Mail*, recalls the celebrated lines of Mrs. Browning. Few more appealing pieces on this pathetic theme have appeared:

What did we know of War, its rights and wrongs?
  We heard it named, but gave it not a thought.
Gaily we sang our patriotic songs,
  And with imaginary Germans fought.
We manned our forts of mud against attack,
  And, childlike, revelled in the dust and grime
Driving our fancied foes with fury back,
  Guarding our homes, Kaiser, was this a crime?

Nearer It drew, but little did we care;
  When Farther left we watched him march away,
Envied his uniform and martial air,
  Then marched ourselves to meet the foe in play.
Only the look of grief on Mother's face
  Caused vague unrest within our hearts to stir,
And, clumsily, with kiss and fond embrace,
  We did our very best to comfort her.

And then It came, and with it Terror tense,
  And Fire and Blood, blighting with its foul breath
All that we knew of love and innocence;
  Teaching us Pain and Death, and worse than Death.
Mother and sister butchered 'neath our eyes,
  Crimes that our minds, thank God, could never guess.
Screening his firing line our childhood dies
  To meet the War Lord's call for "frightfulness."

Kaiser, when soon or late your hour shall come,
  And at God's Throne you, suppliant, bend the knee,
Think you those prattling voices will be dumb
  Which now are silenced by your dread decree?
When boastful pride is turned to abject dread,
  What bid for mercy will you make, what plea,
Facing the righteous wrath of Him, Who said:
  "Suffer the little ones to come to Me?"

THE REVEILLE.

Bret Harte is an American poet and author. His last twenty years were spent in England. This beautiful poem is surprisingly appropriate:

Hark! I hear the tramp of thousands,
And of armed men the hum;
Lo! a nation's hosts have gathered
Round the quick alarming drum,—
Saying, "Come,
Freemen, Come!
Ere your heritage be wasted," said the quick alarming drum.

"Let me of my heart take counsel:
War is not of Life the sum;
Who shall stay and reap the harvest
When the autumn days shall come?"
But the drum
Echoed, "Come!
Death shall reap the braver harvest," said the solemn-sounding drum.

But when won the coming battle,
What if profit springs therefrom?
What if conquest, subjugation,
Even greater ills become?"
But the drum
Answered, "Come!
You must do the sum to prove it," said the *British*-answering drum.

"What if 'mid the cannons' thunder,
Whistling shot and bursting bomb,
When my brothers fall around me,
Should my heart grow cold and numb?"
But the drum
Answered, "Come!
Better there in death united, than in life a recreant,—Come!"

Thus they answered,—hoping, fearing,
Some in faith, and doubting some,
Till a trumpet-voice proclaiming,
Said, "My chosen people, come!"
Then the drum,
Lo! was dumb,
For the great heart of the nation, throbbing, answered, "Lord, we come!"

SONG OF THE SOLDIERS.

Mr. Thomas Hardy's brilliant achievements in short stories and novels have almost overshadowed his poetical merits. But he has happily come again with the charm of his verses so bracing and fresh:

What of the faith and fire within us
Men who march away
Ere the barn-cocks say
Night is growing gray,
To hazards whence no tears can win us;
What of the faith and fire within us,
Men who march away?

Is it purblind prank, O think you,
Friend with the musing eye,
Who watch us stepping by,
With doubt and dolorous sigh?
Can much pondering so hoodwink you
Is it a purblind prank, Oh think you,
Friend with the musing eye?

Nay. We see well what we are doing,
Though some may not see—
Dalliers as they be!—
England's need are we;
Her distress would set us rueing:
Nay. We see well what we are doing,
Though some may not see!

In our heart of hearts believing
Victory crowns the just,
And that braggarts must
Surely bite the dust.
March we to the field ungrieving,
In our heart of hearts believing
Victory crowns the just.

Hence the faith and fire within us
Men who march away
Ere the barn-cocks say
Night is growing gray,
To hazards whence no tears can win us;
Hence the faith and fire within us,
Men who march away.

ROLL UP!

The heading of the following song is taken from the historic words of Pitt uttered on an historic occasion. Mr. W. M. L. Hutchinson's lines in the *Pall Mall Gazette* is thus very significant:

"Roll up the map of Europe!"
The German Kaiser cried,
"For I'm the new Napoleon,
An' England's 'ands are tied."
But another sort o' rollin' up
Is comin' into play—
"Roll up! Roll up!" sez Kitchener,
An' we're rollin' up all day.

'E thought, did Kaiser William,
That England would stand by
'While 'e an' 'is five million
Were crushin' 'er ally;
"For they 'aven't got the men," 'e said,
"To fight acrost the seas."
"Roll up! Roll up!" sez Kitchener,
"New Army, forward, please!"

Yes, 'e wants a Second Army—
'E's going to get it, too;
For we know the man that call's us,
An' we trust 'im thro' and thro'.
We're steppin' up from everywhere,
To the tune of the old tow-row,
"Roll up! Roll up!" sez Kitchener,
"It's King and Country now."

An' while we do our part 'ere,
We'll think with love an' pride
Of our comrades now a-rallyin'
Acrost the oceans wide,
For East an' West an' furthest South
They hear K's call resound—
"Roll up! Roll up for England!"
An' they're rollin' up all round!

THE DAY.

The author of this poem, which was published in the *Daily Express*, is Mr. Henry Chappell, a railway porter at Bath:

You boasted the Day, and you toasted the day,
 And now the Day has come.
Blasphemer, braggart and coward all,
Little you reck of the numbing ball,
The blasting shell, or the "white arm's" fall,
 As they speed poor humans home.

You spied for the Day, you lied for the Day,
 And woke the Day's red spleen.
Monster, who asked God's aid Divine,
Then strewed His seas with the ghastly mine;
Not all the waters of the Rhine
 Can wash thy foul hands clean.

You dreamed for the Day, you schemed for the Day;
 Watch how the Day will go.
Slayer of age and youth and prime,
(Defenceless slain for never a crime)
Thou art steeped in blood as a hog in slime,
 False friend and cowardly foe.

You have sown for the Day, you have grown for the Day;
 Yours is the harvest red.
Can you hear the groans and the awful cries?
Can you see the heap of slain that lies,
And sightless turned to the flame-split skies,
 The glassy eyes of the dead?

You have wronged for the Day, you have longed for the Day,
 That lit the awful flame.
'Tis nothing to you that hill and plain
Yield sheaves of dead men amid the grain;
That widows mourn for their loved ones slain,
 And mothers curse thy name.

But after the Day there's a price to pay
 For the sleepers under the sod,
And He you have mocked for many a day—
Listen, and hear what he has to say:
"Vengeance is mine, I will repay."
 What can you say to God?

ON GUARD.

These inspiring stanzas, addressed to the wardens of Britain, appears in *Truth*:

Wardens of Britain, keeping from hence
 Enemies, holding their waterways barred,
Silent in silence, unrelaxed, tense,
 Standing on guard!

Daytime and nightime, watchful, alert,
 Never an instant of respite you gain;
Sentinels ye, with your loins ever girt,
 Eyes e'er at strain.

Never immune from the stealthy attack,
 Where, when, its menace no man can foretell;
Conscious, one moment of vigilance slack,
 Ruin may spell.

Easier far were the shock of joined fight—
 Dreadnought 'gainst Dreadnought in battle array;
Watch ye a foeman who skulks out of sight
 Day after day.

Echoes on land now the clash of the hosts,
 Swift stirring action whose fame spreads around
From our sea watch-dogs, all voiceless as ghosts,
 Comes there no sound.

Silent in silence, with resolute heart,
 No people's plaudits their spirit to cheer,
No one to see how they play their grim part,
 No one to hear.

Here's to the brave lads by land now who fight—
 Will fight till back the invader is hurled—
Doing deeds breathlessly glorious, right
 In the eye of the world.

Here's to them! Aye, but forget not *their* share,
 Britons, who faithfully watch over you,
Silent, unblazoned, sure sentinels there
 Out on the blue.

Wardens of Britain, keeping from hence
 Enemies, holding their waterways barred,
Silent in silence, unrelaxed, tense,
 Standing on guard!

FALL IN.

This is perhaps the most powerful and effective of recent verses. Mr. Begbie's appeal is irresistible:

What will you lack, sonny, what will you lack
 When the girls line up the street,
Shouting their love to the lads come back
 From the foe they rushed to beat?

Will you send a strangled cheer to the sky
 And grin till your cheeks are red?
But what will you lack when your mate goes by
 With a girl who cuts you dead?

Where will you look, sonny, where will you look
 When your children yet to be
Clamour to learn of the part you took
 In the war that kept men free?

Will you say it was naught to you if France
 Stood up to her foe or bunked?
But where will you look when they give the glance
 That tells you they know you funked?

How will you fare, sonny, how will you fare,
 In the far-off winter night,
When you sit by the fire in an old man's chair
 And your neighbours talk of the fight?

Will you sink "away as it were from a blow,
 Your old head shamed and bent?
Or say—"I was not with the first to go,
 But I went, thank God, I went"?

Why do they call, sonny, why do they call,
 For men who are brave and strong?
Is it nought to you if your country fall,
 And Right is smashed by Wrong?

Is it football still and the picture show,
 The pub and the betting odds,
When your brothers stand to the tyrant's blow
 And England's call is God's?

THE MESSAGES.

Wilfrid Wilson Gibson writes in the *Nation* :

"I cannot quite remember . . . There were five
Dropt dead beside me in the trench—and three
Whispered their dying messages to me . . ."
Back from the trenches, more dead than alive,
Stone-deaf and dazed, and with a broken knee,
He hobbled slowly, muttering vacantly:
"I cannot quite remember . . . There were five
Dropt dead beside me in the trench—and three
Whispered their dying messages to me . . .
"Their friends are waiting wondering how they thrive—
Waiting a word in silence patiently . . .
But what they said, or who their friends may be
"I cannot quite remember . . . There were five
Dropt dead beside me in the trench—and three
Whispered their dying messages to me . . ."

AN ANTI-ENGLISH POEM.

Anti-English poems are rare, at any rate we have seen very few. The *Lokal-Anbeiger* of August 12 quotes some bitter verses by Professor Otto Von Gierke, who accuses England of having betrayed her Teutonic origin. The following is a rough version of the first and concluding stanzas :—

What hast thou then the Teuton kinship broken,
Perfidious Albion !
And sett'st thyself to deeds of shame unspoken,
All for what Judas won !

* * * *

Our strength in the truth of God eternal,
The truth that shall not end.
Launch, England, launch thy fleets of might internal,
We stand strong to defend !

We, too, are Lords of Ocean, nor can pardon
Thy people's bartered troth;
Our heart and will to victory shall harden,
Staunch to our word and oath.

Putt'st thou thy trust in cunning calculation
That we are few, yet more ?
Learn that the spirit of the German nation
Makes hosts on sea and shore.

The spirit that once the oaks of freedom wreathing
Our ancient land of Germany inspired,
Now as from heaven miraculously breathing,
This day our hearts hath fired.

Seest thou not how its holy flames are glowing
Or hear'st thou not the thunder of its call ?
United are we ; and united going,
Ready to stand or fall.

Storm on with Slavs and strangers in alliance,
Vile-hearted nation on !
Thou shalt not set God's judgment at defiance
Perfidious Albion !

THE KAISER AND GOD.

Mr. Barry Pain is provoked to pen these lines on reading the audacious telegram of the Kaiser to the Crown Princess on the first flush of German victory. The telegram runs as follows :—

"I rejoice with you in Wilhelm's first victory. How magnificently God supported him !"

Led by Wilhelm, as you tell,
God has done exceedingly well ;
You with patronising nod
Show that you approve of God.
Kaiser—face a question now—
This—does God approve of you ?

Broken pledges, Treaties torn,
Your first page of war adorn ;
We on fouler things must look
Who read further in that book,
Where you did in time of war
All that you in peace forswore.

Where you barbarously wise,
Bade your soldiers terrorise,
Where you made—the deed was fine—
Women screen your firing line,
Villages burnt down to dust,
Torture, murder, bestial lust,
Filth too foul for printer's ink,
Crimes from which the apes would shrink—
Strange the offerings that you press
On the God of righteousness !

Kaiser, when you'd decorate
Sons or friends who serve your State,
Not that Iron Cross bestow
But a Cross of Wood, and so—
So remind the world that you
Have made Calvary anew.

Kaiser, when you'd kneel in prayer
Look upon your hands, and there
Let that deep and awful stain
From the blood of children slain
Burn your very soul with shame,
Till you dare not breathe that Name
That now you glibly advertise—
God as one of your allies.

Impious braggart, you forget
God is not your conscript yet ;
You shall learn in dumb amaze
That His ways are not your ways,
That the mire through which you trod
Is not the high, white road of God,
To Whom, whichever way the combat rolls,
We, fighting to the end, commend our souls.

THE FRENCH SOLDIER.

"I worked in Lyons at my weaver's loom,
When suddenly the Prussian despot hurled
His felon blow at France and at the world ;
Then I went forth to Belgium and my doom.
I gave my life for freedom—This I know :
For those who bade me fight had told me so."

Mr. W. N. Ewer in the *Nation*.

THE VIGIL.

Mr. Henry Newbolt invokes in the columns of the *Times* the spirit of old English chivalry for the defence of the right:

England! where the sacred flame
 Burns before the inmost shrine,
Where the lips that love thy name
 Consecrate their hopes and thine,
Where the banners of thy dead
Weave their shadows overhead,
Watch beside thine arms to-night,
Pray that God defend the Right.

Single-hearted, unafraid,
 Hither all thy heroes came,
On this altar's steps were laid
 Gordon's life and Outram's fame.
England! if thy will be yet
By their great example set,
Here beside thine arms to-night
Pray that God defend the Right.

So shalt thou when morning comes
 Rise to conquer or to fall,
Joyful hear the rolling drums,
 Joyful hear the trumpet's call.
Then let Memory tell thy heart:
"*England! What thou wert, thou art!*"
Gird thee with thine ancient might,
Forth! and God defend the Right!

THE HEART OF ITALY.

Italy has announced her neutrality and Mr. A. Vivanti Chartre's lines in the *Times* are the expressions of the universal sentiment on the subject:

Italy, fair Italy, what may thy pleasure be,
"Come, rest thee on thy sunlit shores, thy hands around thy knee.
"Recline upon thy laurel-wreaths in *far niente* sweet.
"And watch the golden sunset on thy waving fields of wheat.

"Italy, fair Italy, what is this war to thee?
"Lay down thy shield, and fan thy cheek with palms from Tripoli.
"Cast down thy shining helmet, plant thy banner in the grass.
"And smile into thy twofold sea as in a looking glass."

The Prussian eagle's wings are black, the Prussian beak is red,
The Prussian talons tear and rend the wounded and the dead.
Ah, life is short, and peace is safe, and *far niente* sweet!
But Italy, fair Italy, is rising to her feet.

Not all her sons have fallen 'neath the crescent and the star,
The sound of Garibal's Hymn comes ringing from afar.
——And Italy, the beautiful, in sacramental awe Reveals within her milk-white breast the blood red heart of war.

THE BALLAD OF THE *EMDEN*.

"Nautical" in the *Englishman*, pays a deserved tribute to the gallantry of the *Emden*. The *Emden* has sunk a score of merchantmen. After a heavy fight off Cocos she has been captured and burnt, the survivors and her gallant Captain made prisoners:

If there's one thing more than another
Of which England is justly proud
It's a trait of the sporting mother
Not granted to every crowd,

The trait that gives in full measure
The meed to a worthy foe,
That makes a good fight a pleasure
Whether victory come or no.

So here's to the crew of the *Emden*
For she's done us and done us fine,
She's rounded and sunk and hammered' em
Some ten of our merchant line.

Tho' her foes were an unknown number,
Her base and supports were *nil*,
With a collier her course to encumber
Yet gaily she took her fill

Of our jute-jammed, tea-laden liners,
Then to Pondichery for rest
Till the non-insured owing diners
Of the Bengal Club saw the jest.

Light and shade make the usual picture
But the Kaiser's is black as ink,
Still I hope I'll incur no stricture
By voicing what sportsmen think

That, black as the Teuton record
In Belgium must reckoned be,
Here's a high light sent to the War Lord
From the steamy Bengal Sea.

Had ours been the *Emden* cruiser,
And ours her record to date,
We'd have called her our own little bruiser,
And given her place of State.

THE DAY OF THE "EMDEN."

Here is yet another on the *Emden*:

There's a tiny German cruiser down our way
 And it looks as though she's really come to stay;
She's up to all the tips for sinking merchant ships
 And she seems to have the ocean's right of way.
She has got a gallant Captain and a crew,
And the steamers she has sunk are not a few;
The crew began to mope till they *pukerowed* some soap,
 And they washed themselves as clean as me and you.

First she caught and sank five victims in the Bay,
 And, having sunk them, calmly sailed away.
She was fairly going the rig towards the Pilot Brig,

When she found out that she really couldn't
stay.
The wiseacres said that the Skipper was an ass
But he proved what he could do just outside
Madras;
He steamed up in the haze and set oil-tanks
ablaze
And smashed some houses and some panes of
glass.

Then she disappeared where, no one ever knew,
Got repainted from dull grey to duller blue.
To Germany's great joy she appeared near
Minicoy
And started her old sinking tricks anew.
Having brought off another little coup
She's steaming up and down the ocean blue.

However we may talk, we have made a miss in
baulk
And Calcutta's trade is really in a stew.

Now how long this great *tamasha's* going to
last
The Government has repeatedly been asked,
But the Government is shy and gives some
vague reply
And merely hints that all danger's almost past.

THE BATTLE OF THE BIGHT.

To the sweetness of his verse Watson adds the critical spirit of the truly modern. His cryptic epigrams and eulogies of English poets are the common property of the cultured. Here is his contribution at this great world-crisis:

Had I the fabled herb
That brought to life the dead,
Whom would I dare disturb
In his eternal bed?
Great Grenville would I wake,
And with glad tidings make
The soul of mighty Drake
Lift an exulting head.

As rose the murky sun,
Our men the North Sea scanned,
And each rejoicing gun
Welcomed a foe at hand,
And thundering its delight,
Opened its mouth outright,
And bit them in the bight,
The bight of Heligoland.

With Captains who might claim
They can do aught but flee;
With gunners who can aim,
But cannot bow the knee;
We hammered to their doom
Four giants 'mid the gloom,
And one to a fiercer tomb
Sent blazing down the sea.

Sleep on, O Drake, sleep well!
Thou hast thy heart's desire,
Grenville whom nought could quell,
Thou dost hand on thy fire.
And thou that had'st no peer,
Nelson! thou need'st not fear:
Thy sons and heirs are here,
Nor shall they shame their sire.

THE TRUMPET.

The following poem by Mr. Rabindranath Tagore appears in the *Times*:—

Thy trumpet lies in the dust.
The wind is weary, the light is dead. Ah, the evil day!
Come fighters, carrying your flags and singers with
your songs!
Come pilgrims, hurrying on your journey!
The trumpet lies in the dust waiting for us.
I was on my way to the temple with my evening offer-
ings,
Seeking for the heaven of rest after the day's dusty toil;
Hoping my hurts would be healed and stains in my gar-
ments washed white,
When I found my trumpet lying in the dust.
Has it not been the time for me to light my lamp?
Has my evening not come to bring me sleep?
O, thou blood-red rose, where have my poppies faded?
I was certain my wanderings were over and my debts all
paid
When suddenly I came upon thy trumpet lying in the
dust.
Strike my drowsy heart with thy spell of youth!
Let my joy in life blaze up in fire,
Let the shafts of awakening fly piercing the heart of
night and a thrill of dread shake the palsied blind-
ness.
I have come to raise thy trumpet from the dust.
Sleep is no more for me—my walk shall be through
showers of arrows.
Some shall run out of their houses and come to my side
—some shall weep.
Some in their beds shall toss and groan in dire dreams;
For to-night thy trumpet shall be sounded.
From thee I had asked peace only to find shame.
Now I stand before thee—help me to don my armour!
Let hard blows of trouble strike fire into my life.
Let my heart beat in pain—beating the drum of thy
victory.
My hands shall be utterly emptied to take up thy
trumpet.

TERMONDE.

Termonde, Malines and Rheims with all their sculptured glories have been the principal victims of German Vandalism. Mr. Watson gives expression to the agony caused by the pillage of Termonde:

In Termonde town, still quaking from the bellow
Of war's mad herd—'mid ruin on ruin piled,
A stranger round a shrine, not all defiled,
Of Art's old sculptured glories without fellow;
And there—while Autumn's banners rustled yellow—
High above seas of desolation isled,
Unbruised, unmarred, with her unwearied child,
Leaned a serene Madonna of Donatello,
O'er fledged Hermes lord of speed and spoil,
O'er the vast throes of the Laocoon,
And Milo's lurking marble smile, she shone?
Throned above pillage, and agony's serpent coil,
And carnal charms that fever and embroil,
Motherhood, scatheless, lived divinely on!

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BIKANIR.

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H. H, THE MAHARAJA OF MYSORE.

THE SWORDS OF INDIA.

Mr. Harold Begbie dedicates the following lines to His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore. His Highness gave a magnificent donation of 50 lakhs:

They said, the gentle Germans said :
  "When we, the mighty host, attack
This England whom the nations dread,
  India will strike her in the back!"
But you another tale unfold ;
  You offer treasure, and your lords
Cry to their Emperor, "Sire, behold
  Our swords, our myriad swords!"
They said, the jealous Germans said :
  "This bloated England, like a beast,
Too long her coward soul has fed
  At the rich manger of the East!"
But you who scorn the tyrant's lash,
  Our Peace the shield of all your hordes,
Under the Flag of England flash
  Your swords, your warrior swords!
They said, the jeering Germans said :
  "India, who waits, will not be loth—"
Her conscripts' blood be on the head
  Of them who lied about us both!
India, with us you live and breathe,
  Our steadfast will with yours accords ;
God knows our pride when you unsheath
  Your swords, your faithful swords!

INDIA TO ENGLAND.

The following poem, written by a distinguished Indian Judge, Nawab Nizamut Jung, of the High Court of Hyderabad, appears in the *Times*. It will be remembered that H. H. the Nizam gave away 60 lakhs for the Indian War Fund :—

O England! in thine hour of need,
When Faith's reward and Valour's meed
    Is death or glory ;
When fate indites, with biting brand,
Clasped in each warrior's stiff'ning hand,
    A nation's story ;
Though weak our hands, which fain would clasp
The warrior's sword with warrior's grasp.
    On Victory's field ;
Yet turn, O mighty Mother! turn
Unto the million hearts that burn
    To be thy shield!
Thine equal justice, mercy, grace,
Have made a distant alien race
    A part of thee!
'Twas thine to bid their souls rejoice,
When first they heard the living voice
    Of Liberty!
Unmindful of their ancient name,
And lost to honour, glory, fame,
    And sunk in strife,
Thou found'st them, whom thy touch hath made
Men, and to whom thy breath conveyed
    A nobler life!
They, whom thy love hath guarded long,
They, whom thy care hath rendered strong
    In love and faith ;
Their heart-strings round thy heart entwine ;
They are, they ever will be, thine.
    In life—in death!

INDIA TO THE FRONT.

Mr. George West writes in the *Pioneer* the following patriotic song on the announcement that Indian troops would fight shoulder to shoulder with the British and Colonial forces on the continent :—

There's a call has come to the country,
  Like a trumpet blast it rings,
That bids us, stern but welcome,
  To join the game of kings.
"To the front," you men of the Empire,
  Whelps of the lion all,
"To the front," and India's thrilling
  That her's too is the call.

Do you see the guns belch murder
  And the piles of the shattered dead ?
Straight into war's inferno,
  The soldier's bloody bed,
That's where we're bound to, brothers,
  Both your folk, aye and mine,
But you'll note we go together
  In Britain's fighting line.

For it's our great place of meeting,
  This that the German planned,
For the holocaust of nations
  He did not understand ,
That he'd rouse the whole of the Empire,
  What can a blind man see ?
What can a tyrant know about
  The Empire of the free ?

It's a grim, glad, family party,
  Death is the standing dish,
But to die for King and country,
  Is the soldier's proudest wish.
And we'll all be there together,
  Colonial, Britisher—you
Of the Empire's brightest jewel,
  India gallant and true.

Proud land of an ancient people,
  Of the sage sublime—and the sword,
You know the call of the spirit,
  You hear the voice of the Lord,
And listen! the voice is calling,
  Is calling you far away
To fight for the right and the Empire,
  This is our Empire Day.

Did they think Wilhelm presuming
  —He was ignorant—when he prayed,
As a Thug might have done in by-gone days
  For a blessing on his raid?
But God knows such invocations
  And he answers as He thinks best.
What the Kaiser did by his praying
  Was to marry the East and West.

Oh cheer for the dawn that's coming
  Through the thunder clouds of night,
Through this hell of woe and carnage
  Breaks a far Celestial light,
And though all we're marching, marching
  —Indian, English, we are one,—
Comrades in arms together,
  Ours is the place in the Sun.

THE WAR-SONG FOR THE INDIANS.

Mr. Ardeshir F. Khabardar writes the following spirited War Song for the Indians which originally appeared in the *Indian Review*:—

I.

A call from the West;
The trumpet, the drum:
'My Indians, my best,
My glory, my crest!'
We come, we come!
Where all the world meets,
And Death the brave greets
With cannon and sword;
Where loud and quick beasts
The terrible drum;
There quiet, abhorred,
Shall we stand and hum?
Nay, by thee, our Lord!
We come, we come!

II

Quick from the mountain
Where pipe the strong gales,
Quick by the fountains
Of a thousand green vales,
We come, we come!
Piping and singing,
And all the air ringing
With festival fire,
While to us joy's bringing
The distant, sweet drum;—
An age's desire!
Shall we now be dumb!
Nay, by thee, our sire!
We come, we come.

III

We know not the fear
When our swords are unsheathed;
We know but that here
A great trust is bequeathed:
We come, we come.
With thundering cannon,
The enemy's pennon
We'll shatter and fling,
While ever and anon
Will rattle our drum;
Their hearts but will sting
Them, those doubting some,
While, by thee, our King!
We come, we come!

IV.

We have all the beauty
Of our home and our land;
We know but our Duty
Is by thee to stand:
We come, we come!
Rajputs, Gurkhas or Sikhs,
Islams,—all intermix;
Our joy is now vaster;
Our heart only sticks
To the far-beating drum;
We gather all faster
As true souls become;
Here, by thee, our Master!
We come, we come!

The heart of a nation,
A noble great heart,
In one acclamation
Now takes its true part:
We come, we come!
Where Death is an honour,
Where Life gets upon her
A light from the higher,
We fight to dethrone her
Who beats the wrong drum;
To die or acquire
Our life's greatest sum!
Over oceans, our Sire!
We come, we come!

VI.

From thy vast dominions
Of spices and gold,
We march all thy millions,
Exultant and bold:
We come, we come!
Let oceans divide us,
Yet Truth is beside us,
And faithful our sword;
Thou only shalt guide us
And sound the free drum!
We rush and we cord
Thy enemies numb;
We are thine, our Lord!
We come, we come!

THE INDIAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.

Mr. K. S. Ramaswami Sastri, B.A., B.L., writes in the *Indian Review* the following stanzas touching the response of the Indian troops at this grave crisis:—

Brothers! whom East and West admire!
You own a mighty lineage proud
From men who loved the God of Fire
And burnt the dark and faithless crowd,—

From men who kept Devotion's flame
On well-swept altars of the heart,
Whose handsome mien and giant frame
Did fit them for a regal part,

From men who turned from sin and crime
And followed Dharma e'en in war,
Sung in Valmiki's, Vyasa's rhyme,
Their fame fixed like the polar star,

Our British brethren in their grace
Do give us now a brother's right
To win Renown's bright deathless bays
By trampling down Adharma's might.

"The gates of heaven the God's unbar
When warriors fall in righteous cause;"
Says God who drove the Prince's car
For triumph of His changeless laws,

Rise up and slay unholy foes,
The modern faithless demon-brood,
Who stain His Love's white fadeless rose
With His sweet slaughtered children's blood.

Come back with fame! Or sacrifice
Your life for Him and at His call.
Lay low in dust the rule of lies
And sins and crimes. God bless you all!

ODE TO THE INDIAN ARMY.

Mr. M. Krishnmachary, B.A. L.T., offers these stirring lines to the Indian Army in the columns of the *Indian Review*:

1.

Indians all whatever your creed,
Heroes all whatever your breed,
Hasten from your hills and plains,
Hindus, Moslems, Buddhists, Jains,
Brothers all,
Who together rise or fall,
Strike together your martial strains;—
Hark the call!—
In the name of God above,
For the Emperor whom you love,
In the sacred cause of Right,
Strike together, strike with all your might!

2.

Than the Indian soldier where
Bolder bosom breathes the air?
Rajput Chieftains, where on earth
Chivalry had earlier birth
Than in you?
Moslems, than your ancient sires,
Who more valiant weapons drew,
Hardier who?
Horsemen of Mahrashtra fleet,
You united who can beat?
Courage the name of Sikh inspires,
Blaze the Gurkha's wonted fires,
Brothers all,
Stern as Death at Duty's call,
For the Empire, for the Right,
Strike together, strike with all your might!

3.

Hark the trumpet's blast afar,
Hark the Empire's clash of war;
Can you rest?
Go uncalled where battle rages
Go and earn such warrior wages
As be best.
Where your British brother stands,
Go and ply your loyal hands;
There, despite your swarthy hue,
Valiant hearts will offer you
Greetings as to comrades due;
Let the glow
Of your jewelled turbans fine,
Of your pugrees' golden line
With their gallant helmets shine;—
Onward go,
Where the Belgian martyr strives
Hasten, offer up your lives;
Where the dauntless Frenchmen hold
Haste and strike Ambition bold;
In the Empire's cause of Right,
Strike together, strike with all your might!

4.

Hasten on the world's wide scene,
Deadlier conflict ne'er had been,
Conflict Right and Wrong between,
Ne'er more keen;
Nor did earth a bolder foe
Bent all peace to overthrow,
Bent all rights to trample low
Till now know,
Who nor plighted word can keep
When his brutal passions sweep,
Nor will peaceful arts preserve
That long ages did conserve—
Barbarous foe!—
Yet despite his legions strong,
And despite his plotting long,
Austrian craft and German wrong
'Gainst Britannia's righteous throng
Down shall go;
Down beneath the elephant tread
Of the Indian Briton-led
Wolves and jackals wild-Hun-bred
Trampled shall be in the fight;—
Strike then in the cause of Right,
Strike together, strike with all your might!

5.

Indians hasten to the strife,
Hasten where be Death most rife;
Hasten where rain heaviest blows—
There alone true honour grows!
Pay the price!
Pay the price as did of old
Those whose banners now you hold;
For the country that hath bred you,
For the empire that hath sped you
Sacrifice!
With your lives now purchase, purchase
Deathless glory for all days;
What more sweet?
And with glory home return,
Or in glory fill your urn:
What more meet?
On! then, to the trumpet's blast—
On! all eyes are on you cast—
On! and by your deeds proclaim
How you prize the warrior's name
Till last breath;
On! your Emperor's words at heart
Keep, and men-like bear your part
At the death;
Bear like men whose past can never fade,
Bear like men whose future shall be made
By God's will
Greater still,
Still by battling for the Right,
For the Empire, battling with all might.

THE GERMAN SOLDIER.

Mr. W. N. Ewer in the *Nation*:

"I Owned a vineyard by the wooded Main,
Until the Fatherland, begirt by foes
Lusting her downfall, called me, and I rose
Swift to the call—and died in fair Lorraine,
I gave my life for freedom—This I know:
For those who bade me fight had told me so."

THE INDIAN ARMY.

The Indian troops have been the recipients of the heartiest welcome amidst the Allies. Here is one more tribute from the pen of Mr. R. E. Vernede in the *Times* :

Into the West they are marching! This is their longed-for day.
When that which England gave them they may at last repay,
When for the faith she dealt them, peasants and priests and lords.
When for the love they bear her, they shal unsheath their swords!
Men of the plains and hillmen, men born to warrior roes,
Tall men of matchless ardour, small men with mighty souls,
Rulers alike and subjects : splendid the roll-call rings :
Rajahs and Maharajahs, Kings and the sons of Kings,
Bikanir, Patiala, Ratlam and Kishangarh,
Jodhpur, who rides the leopard down, Sachin and Cooch-Behar,
From lands where skies are molten and suns strike down and parch,
Out of the East they're marching, into the West they march.... .. ..
Oh little nimble Gurkhas, who've won a hundred fights,
Oh Sikhs—the Sikhs who failed not upon the Dargai heights,
Rajputs, against whose valour once in a younger world,
Ruthless, unceasing, vainly, the Mogul's hosts were hurled,
Grey are our Western daybreaks and grey our Western skies,
And very cold the night-watch unbroken by jackal's cries ;
Hard too will be the waiting—you do dot love to wait?
Aye, but the charge with bayonet—they'll sound it soon or late!
And when that charge is sounded, who'll heed gray skies and cold?
Not you, Sikhs, Rajputs, Gurkhas, if to one thought you hold,
If as you cross the open, if as the foe you near,
If as you leap the trenches, thought is very thus clear :
These foes, they are not sahibs : they break the word they plight,
On babes their blades are whetted, dead women know their might,
Their Princes are as sweepers whom none may touch or trust,
Their Gods they have forgotten ; their honour trails the dust ;
All that they had of izzat is trodden under heel——
Into their hearts, my brothers, drive home, drive home the steel!

LOVE AND DUTY.

The conquest of Duty over Love is the theme of many a lyrical fancy. For many years since, the Indian soldier has seldom experienced the conflict of these two passions. On going to the Front the Indian soldier bids adieu to his love in these lines :

Sweet girl, stern Duty's call I hear,
And martial music lures me far,
'Tis time to leave thee now my dear,
And join my comrades in the War.

Then cease these idle sighs, my love,
And bid thy dearest soldier go ;
And me shall aid the gods above
When face to face I fight the foe.

My warrior's fame shall walk the earth,
And quail the bravest of the brave.
My sabre lone shall show my worth,
My native land's beyond the wave

The foe shall learn, what sturdy hearts,
In Eastern realms as yet remain,
Well vers'd in martial laws and arts,
We warriors dwell across the main.

Then bid me go, my love, my wife ;
And cease these idle tears to flow !
For it behoves not soldier's wife
To break his heaven-recorded vow.

I'll come again if Fate should smile,
My only love, my wife, to you,
But now I go a thousand mile,
To fight the foe.........So......so......adieu.

THE FIGHT FOR FREEDOM.

In his excellent poem entitled "Five Souls," Mr. W. N. Ewer has written in the columns of the *Nation* a powerful plea for the men of each of the belligerents—a plea so touching and pathetic in its simplicity. Each one believes he gives his life for freedom "for those who bade me fight had told me so." The British, French, and German souls have given their story. Now is the time for the Polish peasant and the Tyrolese :

"I was a Tyrolese, a mountaineer ;
I gladly left my mountain home to fight
Against the brutal, treacherous Muscovite ;
And died in Poland on a Cossack spear.
I gave my life for freedom—This I know :
For those who bade me fight had told me so."

"I was a peasant of the Polish plain ;
I left my plough because the message ran :—
Russia, in danger, needed every man
To save her from the Teuton ; and was slain.
I gave my life for freedom—This I know :
For those who bade me fight had told me so.'

ENGLAND'S CAUSE IS OURS.

Mr. A. Madhaviah, B.A., an accomplished South Indian penman, writes in the *Wednesday Review*:

Indian Brothers! If you care
For our mother-land,
If your hearts be brave and leal,
If e'er grateful ye can feel,
If you know our truest weal.
Now's time to do and dare,
England's cause is ours.
Wise my Brothers! If ye've faith
In a noble cause,
Think not this is England's war,
It is Freedom's, near and far.
'Hitch your waggon to her star,'
Die, or win the glorious wreath,
England's cause is ours.
Indian Sisters! If ye love
Freedom, honour, truth,
Think that death can come but once,
And the life-stream ceaseless runs,
Send your husbands, brothers, sons,
Trusting wholly God above:
England's cause is ours.
Sisters! Brothers! Now's the hour
That we prove our worth,—
Let who can, go fight and slay,
Let the rich give what they may,
Let the poor and weakly pray,
Prove by all that's in our power,
England's cause is ours.
One without a second! Hear
Thou Thy people's prayer,
Strike the proud aggressor down,
With the terror of Thy frown,
And the Right with vict'ry crown;
So Thy Justice will appear;
Freedom's cause is Thine.

BALLAD OF HONOUR.

In remembrance of the distinguished part played in the now historic Battle of the Bight by H. M. S. "Arethusa," the Admiralty has allowed the following two verses to be engraved upon a brass plate, and fixed in a conspicuous place on board the cruiser:—

Come all ye jolly sailors bold,
Whose hearts are cast in honour's mould,
While English glory I unfold.
Hurrah for the "Arethusa,"
Her men are staunch,
To their favourite launch,
And when the foe shall meet our fire,
Sooner than strike we'll all expire,
On board the "Arethusa."
And now we've driven the foe ashore,
Never to fight with Britons more,
Let each fill his glass,
To his favourite lass,
A health to our captain and officers true,
And all that belong to the jovial crew,
On board the "Arethusa."

A gold plate has been placed on board all vessels that took part in this well-known and successful engagement, bearing the words, "Heligoland, August 28, 1914."

The following is taken from the *Punch* of October 7th 1914:—

INDIA: 1784-1914.

The job was for us, grin and bear,
We'd lit on India's dust and drought,
We knew as we were planted there,
But scarcely how it came about,
And so, in rough and tumble style,
And nothing much to make a shout,
We set our backs to graft awhile,
And meant to stay and stick it out.
Ten hundred risky, frisky kings,
And on the whole a decent lot,
And several hundred million things,
That trusted us with all they'd got,
And so we blundered at it straight
And found the times were pretty hot
And so they smiled and called it Fate,
And Fate it was, as like as not.
Our law was one for great and small—
We heard 'em honest, claim for claim,
We smoothed their squables for 'em all,
And let 'em pray by any name,
And so we left enough alone,
But learnt 'em plenty all the same,
We showed 'em what they should be shown,
And tried to play the decent game.
For, all our work, we 've not got much?
Pr'aps not: but now there's come a scrap,
That's got us good with lies and such,
And gave 'em just the chance to snap,
And fools had thought they likely would,
(That's German-made and rattle-trap);
They'd shout—the Kaiser said they should—
And, happen, wipe us off the map.
From snow to sand that shout has burst,
And German lies are well-believed,
And flood calls field for who'll be first—
They 're proud to share the Empire-pride,
It's them for Britain at the test,
We knew they'd never stand aside,
For when we tried and did our best
The beggars must have known we tried.

VENIZEL.

This is from the pen of an Officer in Command of a Battery at the Front:

Let me go back to Venizel
And farther still across the plain,
A garden grows beside the Aisne
With sweet black plums that like me well.

Beyond the bridge at Venezil
The sunny level plain is laid.
Last week we crossed, and had for shade
The yellow bursts of German shell.

And once again at Venizel
My boys the Prussian fire withstood.
Stout hearts still sleep within the wood,
Besides the bridge for which they fell.

Let us go back to Venizel;
To Bony highlands let us win
The road is northward to Berlin
And our advance the Prussians' knell.

INDIA'S DEVOTION TO BRITAIN

Why India is Heart and Soul with Great Britain.*

BY MR. BHUPENDRANATH BASU.

WHY is India heart and soul with Great Britain in the present crisis? The answer is quite plain to the Indian but probably it will not be so plain to the Englishman who has never been in India, or having been has not come in touch with the heart and soul of India. Alas! all Englishmen even in India do not try to do so. If India was a conquered territory in the sense that is usually understood or if the Indians held the position of a subject nation the response given by India in the hour of the Empire's need would have been a matter for wonder indeed; but India is not a conquered country nor are her people a subject population.

In the middle of the eighteenth century the central Moghul authority at Delhi had fallen into complete and irretrievable decay. The Mahratta power which had arisen on its ruins received a stunning blow in the third battle of Panipat. India was divided into a number of small States, held apart by mutual suspicion and jealousy, and not seldom warring against each other. The country has become a prey to anarchy and confusion. In this state of things, the help of the French or the English trading companies was sought by rival States or harassed populations. The battle of Plassey, which laid the foundation of British rule in India and gave to the East India Company the revenue administration of Bengal, was undertaken as much on the invitation of the Indian people as the threatened English settlement at Murshidabad, which was fought practically with Indian soldiers. In the wars that followed the Government of Great Britain did not supply a single soldier or send a single rupee. It was solely with India's money, and mostly with Indian blood, that the British Empire in India was built up and consolidated, and when the Mutiny came in 1857, and British rule in India was nearly shattered, it was again with the help of the Indian princes and people that it was re-established. Professor Seeley has justly observed that "the expression 'conquest' as applied to the acquisition of sovereignty by the East India Company in India is not merely loose, but thoroughly misleading." India has never felt that she was a conquered country, and the Indians do not feel that they are a conquered people.

But it is not a question of historical deduction or personal feeling. The Charter Act of 1833, one of the early parliamentary statutes dealing with the Government of India, "definitely and finally recognised the equality of status, of rights, and of duties of the Indian subjects of His Majesty with the British subjects." But this is not all.

INDIA'S MAGNA CHARTA.

The people of India justly attach very great importance to the Proclamation issued in 1858 by Queen Victoria to the Princes, Chiefs and People of India on the occasion of the transfer of the Government of India from the East India Company to the British Crown. India was just then emerging from a bloody and terrible struggle. Great as was the occasion, marking a new and important epoch in the history of India, it was rendered doubly memorable by the great Proclamation of Queen Victoria, which has been truly called the Magna Charta of the Indian people.

High statesmanship, bringing the solace of peace to a bleeding people and holding out hopes of a great figure, combined with sentiments as lofty as have ever moved humanity, was the predominant feature of this noble message, and it ended with a humble and solemn prayer which went straight in the hearts of an Oriental people instinct with the religious spirit.

After announcing a general amnesty, the Proclamation proceeded:

"We desire no extension of Our territorial possessions; and, while We will permit no aggression upon Our dominions or Our rights, We shall sanction no encroachment on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity, and honour of Our Native Princes as Our own.

"We hold Ourselves bound to the natives of Our Indian territories by the same obligations of duty

* Issued as a pamphlet by the Victoria League, London.

which bind Us to all Our other subjects; and those obligations by the blessing of Almighty God, We shall faithfully and conscientiously fulfil. It is Our earnest desire to stimulate the peaceful industry of India, to promote works of public utility and improvement, and to administer its government for the benefits of all Our subjects resident therein: In their prosperity will be Our strength; in their contentment Our security; and in their gratitude Our best reward. And may the God of all power grant Us and those in authority under Us strength to carry out these Our wishes for the good of Our people."

This was not a charter of rights wrung from an unwilling Ruler by force or compulsion, but a deliberate declaration of the policy of the British Parliament graciously and aptly conveyed through the lips of a female Sovereign; and it is not a policy which the British nation has repented. On the fiftieth anniversary of the great Proclamation, it was confirmed and ratified by another message from King Edward VII. to the princes, chiefs, and people of India.

THE SPIRIT OF INDIA.

However short the actual administration in India may have fallen of this great ideal, the Indian people have always regarded it as the fundamental principle of British rule in India. To them and to their Sovereign it has not been a mere scrap of paper. No attempt has since been made, as was done during the administrations of Wellesley and Dalhousie, to disturb Indian princes in their possessions, and though the princes have sometimes fretted under the interference of an overmeddling British official they have always found a generous and sympathetic friend and adviser in Viceroys like Lord Minto and Lord Hardinge. And so far as the people are concerned there has been on the whole fair progress: education, railways, irrigation, a greatly improved administration of law, a common language as the medium of interchange of thought and ideas, a growing spirit of nationality, common government and common ideals, internal peace and freedom from external aggression, have marked the history of British rule in India during the latter half of the nineteenth century. In the twentieth century the reforms associated with the names of the late Earl of Minto and Viscount Morley, though somewhat mutilated in actual operation, and the sympathetic attitude of Lord Hardinge identifying the Government of India with the Indian people on the great question affecting their status as citizens of the British Empire, have drawn the nations, British and Indian, closer together.

There is in India a spirit of frank recognition of the benefits of British rule and of its immense potentialities for good, if carried on under the lead of the British democracy and freed from the trammels of constant tutelage, which certain Anglo-Indian administrators would like to impose upon it. Several generations in India were born and lived during the reign of Queen Victoria. To her, as their great Queen and mother, from whom emanated the great charter of their rights and liberties, the Indian people were passionately attached and devoted. This feeling of personal attachment and devotion has been greatly stimulated and strengthened by the visits to India of members of the Royal Family. They know how to say and to do the right thing at the right moment and by their inbred courtesy and geniality of manner they have helped to soften the atmosphere of aloofness with which some British officials, under an erroneous sense of dignity and prestige, at times surround themselves.

THE VISIT OF THE KING.

The visit of the King and Queen, as the visible embodiment of sovereignty, and the generous and noble utterances of the King in his various addresses in India, did much to strengthen the people in their faith in the ultimate fulfilment of the great Proclamation of Queen Victoria, for hopes long deferred had made them falter. The Indian people justly demand a great extension of education among the masses, for it is the foundation of all progress, and the words of the King in his reply to the address of the University of Calcutta have been taken by them as a fresh landmark in the development of education in India. His Majesty said: "It is my wish that there may be spread over the land a network of schools and colleges, from which will go forth loyal and manly and useful citizens, able to hold their own in the industries and agriculture and all the vocations in life. And it is my wish, too, that the homes of my Indian subjects may be brightened and their labour sweetened by the spread of knowledge with all that follows in its train, a higher level of thought, of comfort, and of health. It is through education that my wish will be fulfilled, and the cause of education in India will ever be close to my heart."

These are precious words to the Indian people as the declaration by the Sovereign of a policy

which must be caried out. Great and far-reaching as have been the benefits of British rule in India, it has not yet risen to the full height of the British people, in whose name and on whose behalf it is administered, nor of the people, heirs to an ancient civilisation, for whose benefit the great Queen asked Divine help to administer her rule. Important questions, such as the right to carry arms, to enlist as volunteers, to enter the commissioned ranks of the Army, the recognition of equal citizenship in the British colonies, the better administration of justice, a more equitable participation in the government of the country, still await solution, and India has necessarily felt at times sore and heartsick, but there never has been any desire to break away. India has definitely set herself to forge ahead and to this end to work in India as well as in England by every constitutional means in her power. With sympathetic statesmen like the Marquis of Crewe and Lord Hardinge at the head of affairs, her career may not be very difficult. Some people may have imagined, the Germans amongst others, that the difficult questions of Indian administration would keep England and India apart and others who realised that the peace of British rule in India has been too slow, too much weighted with caution, have doubted

THE GOAL.

This feeling, no doubt, has been, to some extent, accentuated by the too great prominence that a section of the English Press has given to political crimes in India, forgetting that they are attributable to an infinitesimal fraction of its population. But India has never doubted. Her heart has been wholly with British rule; the foundations of her faith and loyalty have been too well and firmly laid to be lightly disturbed: all that she desires is that British rule in India should be compatible with the self-respect of her people growing in education, knowledge and experience: that it should develop into a rule by the people as part of the British Empire, as was foreseen and foretold by the great statesmen who moulded her destinies in the early part of the nineteenth century. And India has been working towards this goal: she realises it must be a slow and laborious process.

Then came this great European war sudden and swift: all doubt, all hesitation, all questions were swept away; there was but one feeling—to stand by England in the hour of danger. The great opportunity for India in the highest sense had come; she claimed to hold an equal position with other parts of the Empire—she wanted to prove her title. The Indian Princes are eager to show that they are in fact, as they have been in name, pillars of the Empire; their ancestors had fought as captains and leaders in the army of the great Moghul, and they are anxious to occupy their old position in the Army of Great Britain. And the people of India, who have so thoroughly identified themselves with the British people, have come forward more generously than ever in the past either in the days of the Hindu or the Moslem, for they had not then realised their power to offer their services, and their representatives in Council voted out of the revenues of India the whole cost of the Indian expeditionary force; and they are prepared to lay down their lives on the field, so that the old order of things may pass away and a new order be ushered in, based on mutual understanding and confidence and heralding an era brighter and happier than any in the past—the East and the West, India and England, marching onwards in comradeship, united in bonds forged on the field of battle and tempered in their common blood.

Speeches and Writings of Dadabhai Naoroji.

This is the first attempt to bring under one cover an exhaustive and comprehensive collection of the speeches and writings of the venerable Indian patriot, Dadabhai Naoroji. The first part is a collection of his speeches and includes the addresses that he delivered before the Indian National Congress on the three occasions that he presided over that assembly; all the speeches that he delivered in the House of Commons and a selection of the speeches that he delivered from time to time in England and India. The second part includes all his statements to the Welby Commission, a number of papers relating to the admission of Indians to the Services and many other vital questions of Indian administration. The appendix contains, among others, the full text of his evidence before the Welby Commission, his statement to the Indian Currency Committee of 1898 and his replies to the questions put to him by the Public Service Committee on East Indian Finance.

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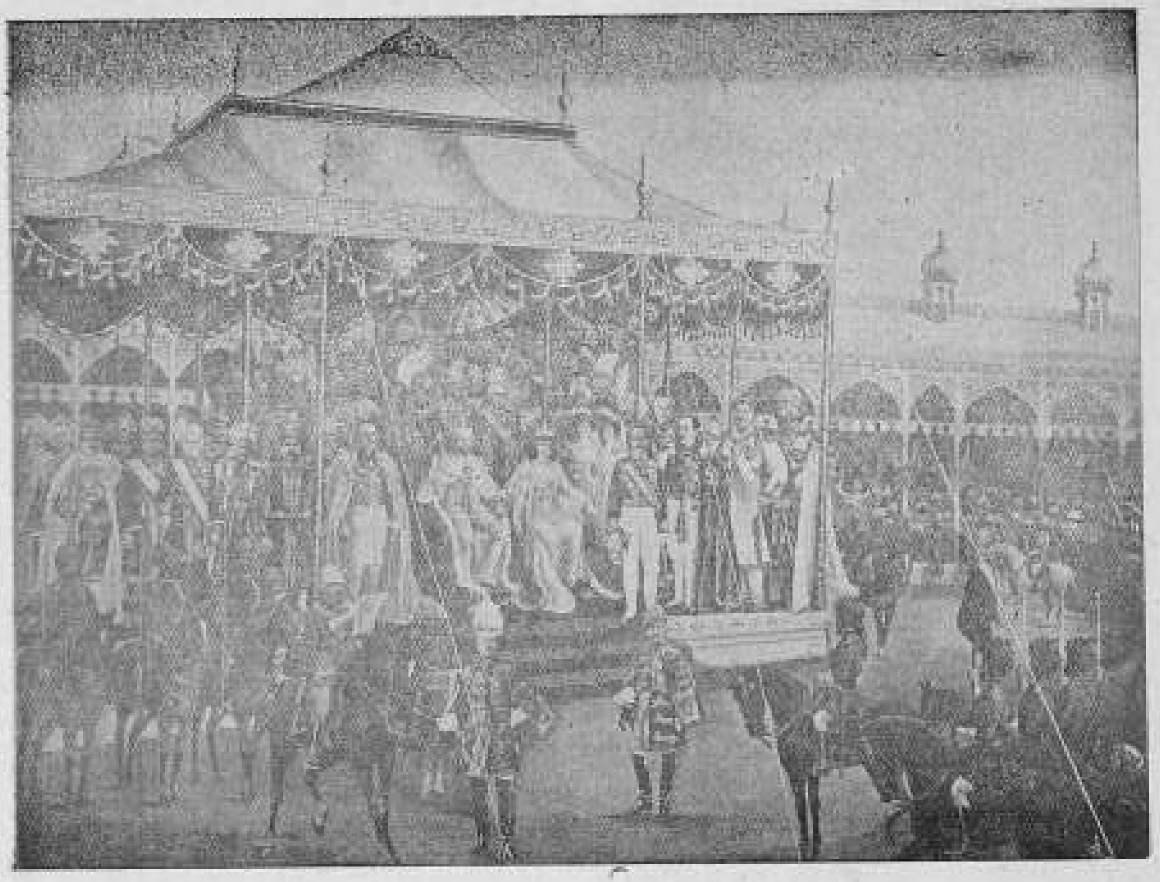

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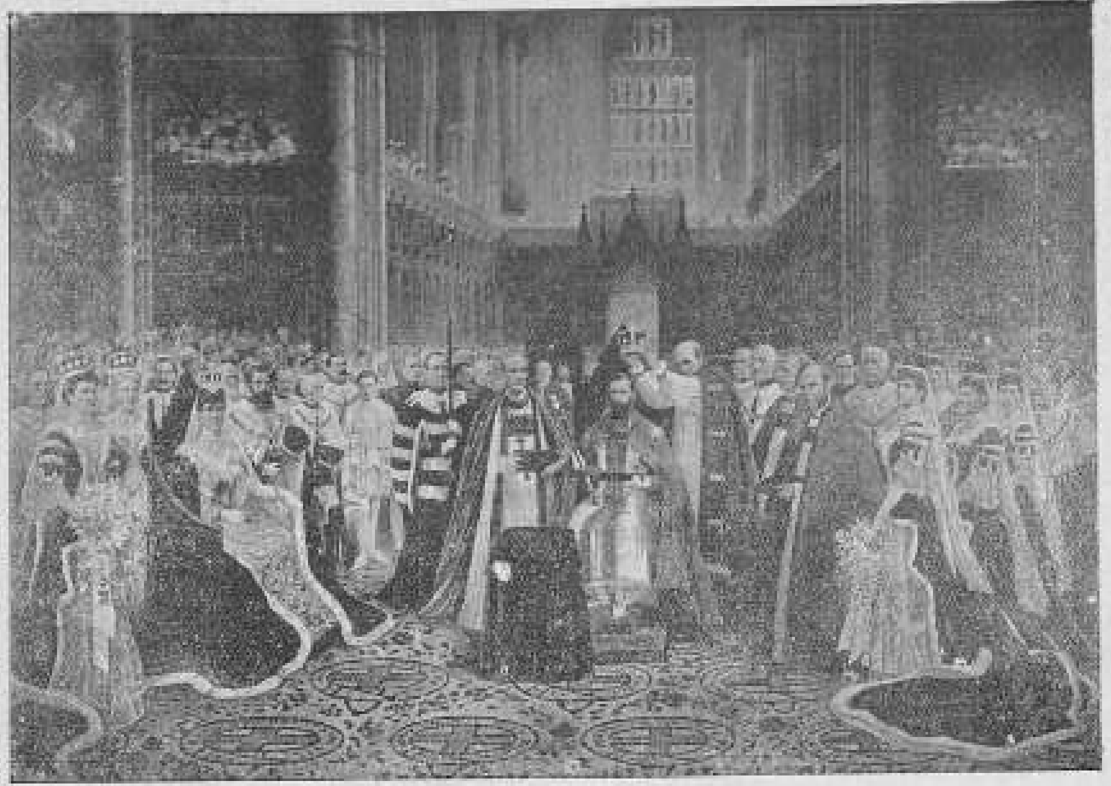


CORONATION OF THEIR MAJESTIES KING GEORGE AND QUEEN MARY IN LONDON

INDIAN TROOPS AT THE FRONT

THE great expectations that were formed of the valour and chivalry of the Indian troops have been justified by recent incidents in France.

Reuter has been giving us from time to time short, little nuggets descriptive of Indian heroism. Though as yet no full and adequate record of the doings of Indian troops are presented, the few incidents that have been published by the Bureau have been highly complimentary. We may refer to one or two. As was expected, at the very first encounter with the enemy the Bengal Lancers, who constitute a part of the Indian Army, displayed conspicuous gallantry.

Reuter has given a telling picture:—

"The enemy had been pressing us hard all along the line and suddenly flung a brigade of infantry, supported by artillery, at a point where he guessed we were most exhausted The Germans were half-way towards our trenches when the Indians, who had only arrived the day before, were brought up. Receiving the command, they swept forward, we cheering as they passed. Making a slight detour to avoid our line of fire, they swept into the Germans from the left like a whirlwind with a shrill yell. They rode right through the Germans, thrusting to the right and left and bringing men down every time. The Germans broke and ran for their lives. The Lancers pursued them for about a mile. When the Indians returned they were cheered all along the line."

The other sections of the Indian troops have proved no less chivalrous. There is again the magnificent achievement of the Sikhs and the Gurkhas. Correspondents describe how the Sikhs and the Gurkhas received their baptism of fire in the war. Near La Bassée they saved the situation when an avalanche of Germans overhelmed the British trenches. We are told that the Indians displayed bravery and dash equal to anything seen throughout the war. They had been held in reserve, and were ordered forward with the bayonet in the nick of time. The issue was decided in an instant. The German advance was not merely checked; it was beaten and broken, the enemy fleeing headlong. The Indians ran through them, using the steel in the most workman-like manner. They turned the foe back to receive the fire of the British Infantry right and left. There was a regular slaughter. The Indians did not stop at the recaptured trenches, but pursued the enemy some distance downhill, till they were recalled. They returned as proud of their work as the "Tommies" were of them.

The daring exploits of the Sikhs are equally arresting the attention of the European troops. The thrilling story of half-a-dozen Gurkhas blowing up a German ammunition store, and their successful return, has been described by a Paris paper with evident appreciation.

All the efforts of the allied artillery to dislodge the German heavy batteries near Stype had failed, says the Paris journal; and aviators finally located the German ammunition store three-and-a-half miles behind the German entrenched line, seven miles from the coast. A Gurkha detachment embarked at nightfall on two gunboats for the mouth of the Yser. After a long march the Gurkhas reached a point three-quarters of a mile from the ammunition store. They crouched noiselessly in a wood and, discarding their accoutrements, wriggled on their hands and knees, their *kukris* in their mouths. Half-an-hour passed, and then the croak of a frog was heard. The forms of six German sentries, previously visible on the road, disappeared without a sound. The remaining Gurkhas dashed forward, and the Allies' Staff, who had been anxiously watching through night-glasses, saw a flash of light and heard a great explosion, followed by countless others as the shells exploded. The little troop safely won its way back to the gunboats, and the next day the German batteries were moved to the rear.

There is again the story of a German aeroplane brought down by the bullets of Indian marksmen.

We are told that while a train filled with Indian troops was standing at a station in France, a German aeroplane passed over the town and began to drop bombs. The Indians left the train and indulged in individual fire, with the result that in a few moments the aeroplane fell. It was apparently carrying more bombs, as there was a terrific explosion when it struck the ground. The three aviators were torn to unrecognisable shreds.

Thus the Indian troops have justified the confidence reposed in their valour. All India is awaiting the triumph of Indian arms in the European battlefield. Even in so short a time they have achieved definite results. For advices

from Berlin, received in Copenhagen, describe the Germans as being depressed by their defeat by the Indian troops. They admitted that it is impossible to meet the Indians in hand to hand fighting, owing to the Indians' greater strength and activity. It is reported that the British reserve the Indians in every battle, till the moment for a hand-to-hand combat arrives. It is believed in Berlin that 200,000 more Indians are coming and it is hoped that some of them will be ordered to the Cape.

The Press Bureau has issued notes by an observer who is serving with the Indian Army. His Excellency the Viceroy has also received from the Secretary of State for India extracts from the observer's report which is interesting reading. Referring to the entirely novel circumstances under which the Indians are fighting, he says that it is a subject for satisfaction that the Indians have so finely fulfilled the high expectations formed of them. Their Commander has pride in reflecting that they have done the work they were asked to do and have maintained the line they were asked to maintain, and, in perhaps the greatest battle ever fought, have shown themselves to be following worthily the example of so many generations of soldiers.

Their Commander has a ready response to an order issued last month which said:—"You are the descendants of mighty rulers and great warriors and will fight for the King-Emperor and your faith, so that history will record the doings of India's sons, and your children will proudly tell of the deeds of their fathers."

The observer gives the following story of a Gurkha Commandant which speaks highly of the Gurkha acumen :—

"The audacity of the enemy cannot be better illustrated than by an incident which occurred in front of the Gurkha trenches. A figure silhouetted in the moonlight wearing complete Gurkha uniform approached the end of the trenches and delivered the following message:—"Gurkhas are to move up the trenches. Another Gurkha contingent is advancing to their support." Puzzled by the announcement, the officer in charge asked: "Who are you, and where do you come from?" And in reply the same order was given. The man's English was good, but the officer's suspicions were aroused, and he asked : "If you are a Gurkha, by what boat did you cross?" No answer was given to this question, and the man fled, but he had not gone five yards before he was riddled with bullets. If the officer had been deceived the trenches would have been swarmed with Germans almost before the Gurkhas had made room for them."

Referring to the unaccustomed conditions under which the Indians are fighting, the observer says that it must not be forgotten that letters found on wounded prisoners make it clear that the German military authorities have specially charged the troops with the task of inflicting the severest possible punishment upon forces whose civilisation they deny and whose soldierly qualities they affect to despise.

In such circumstances the Indian troops engage the enemy under conditions of exceptional difficulty. It is not easy for them to distinguish the German from French soldiers in the dark, and their language is understood by very few fighting on their side. It is matter of great satisfaction that the Indian troops have so finely fulfilled the high expectations formed of them.

The friendship, sympathy and mutual confidence subsisting between the English officers and the men is unsurpassed in any service. The officers have undergone precisely the same hardships as the men and are worthy of the highest traditions of the service.

An order to the Indian troops says :—

"In a few days we shall be fighting, as it has never been our good fortune to fight before, against enemies having a long history, but is their history as long as yours? You are the descendants of men who have been mighty rulers and great warriors of many centuries, and you will recall the glories of your race. Hindu and Mahomedan will be fighting side by side with British soldiers and our gallant French allies, and you will be helping to make history. You will be the first soldiers of the King-Emperor to have the honour of showing in Europe that the sons of India have lost none of their ancient martial instincts and that they are worthy of the confidence reposed in them in battle. You will remember that your religion enjoins that to give your life in doing your duty is the highest reward. The eyes of your co-religionists and countrymen are upon you, and they are eagerly awaiting news of how their brethren conduct themselves when they meet the foe. Such has been the fruit of Indian heroism, and there is no doubt that they will prove worthy of their great traditions."

We await with interest and anxious solicitude further progress of His Majesty's Indian forces.

India's Loyalty and England's Duty

BY ANNIE BESANT.

INDIA'S remarkable rally to the British Empire has given rise to much discussion, some rational, some very much the reverse, as to the reasons which underlay the demonstration. Some saw in it a testimony to the perfection of English Government, as though one should see in the prompt dropping of Irish grievances a proof that the Nationalists had given up Home Rule. India has dropped every question which has arisen between herself and England on domestic matters, as Ireland has dropped the question of Home Rule. When the Empire is attacked, every other issue fades into insignificance; the one duty is that which calls every good patriot to the work of defence.

The true reason which underlies India's loyalty is the fact that India has learned from England the great lesson of national liberty. She has studied English literature, the stately prose of Milton, the impassioned oratory of Burke. Educated Indians have been nourished on the masterpieces of English thought, and English literature is as redolent of freedom as an Indian poet of devotion. And looking at England's practice, they have realised that she battled for centuries to win freedom for herself, and sympathised with and sheltered the patriots of other nations. If she had not risen to the splendid realisation of her own Ideal where India was concerned, yet India had faith that she would so rise in years to come, and would give the liberty which so far she had denied. It is through England's help and by England's friendly guidance that India hopes to step out into the circle of Free Nations, and it is as one of the self-governing units of the British Empire that she hopes to accomplish her own glorious destiny. For the inspiration that England has brought her by the gift of education; for the glory with which England will crown her by the gift of self-government; by her gratitude for the one, and her hope for the other, India is willing to shed her best blood to save the Empire.

Moreover the fact that Great Britain in this quarrel stands for the defence of the small State which she had pledged herself to protect, against a State vast in power and cynically contemptuous of all moral obligation, stirs all India's chivalry to fling herself on England's side. Faith to the plighted word, truth to the accepted obligation, these are ideals to which the chivalrous honour of India thrills in passionate acceptance. All that is noblest, purest, best, the stainless honour of an ancient and mighty people, impels India forward to the battlefield, ready for death, if need be, but not for shame of broken word.

Reasons enough and to spare why India should rally to the defence of the Empire!

But this does not mean that she is careless of her own honour, of her right to breathe the liberty which is the breath of England's life, nor that she desires always to be kept in tutelage in a perpetual Court of Wards. When all danger is over, when peace takes the place of war, and when the domestic concerns of each Nation again assume their natural and rightful place in the minds of the people, then, of course, the questions now dropped will again be raised. Indian grievances are not redressed because India, for the time being, generously puts them aside. We may, however, be sure that, when they come to be dealt with, they will be approached in a spirit very different from that of previous years. India has realised her profound love for the British connexion as perhaps she has never realised it before; it dwelt in her heart, but now it has been objectified as never before, in her own eyes and in the eyes of the world. Sometimes a husband and wife quarrel; but when the idea of a separation is mooted, both start back in horror. And if India has thus realised the strength of her tie with England, England has met her love with passionate gratitude and delight. Conscious that all has not been wholly well, she is the more grateful to the generosity that forgets all save the good in the hour of peril.

Thus both countries will be in a mood to arrange their differences when the war is over, and we cannot doubt that the King Emperor will, as reward for her glorious defence of the Empire, pin upon her breast the jewelled medal of Self-Government within the Empire. It will be, in a sense, a real Victoria Cross, for the great Empress would see in it the fulfilment of her promise in 1858, and the legend inscribed on it would be "for Valour."

But it has been suggested, and the suggestion shows a touch of statesmanlike genius, that England should forestall the end of the war by mak-

ing three important changes in her attitude towards India. The first is to show that she trusts India by exempting all men of position and education from the operation of the Arms Act, or by making the issue to them of licences to bear arms a matter of course. "Legal ineligibility to bear arms carries with it such a sense of humiliation, helplessness and self-contempt, that before it, all other blessings dwindle to insignificance." Moreover, at the present time, if a small band of marauders landed on the coast, what would be the position of the disarmed people? Panic arises, because the people have no means of self-defence.

It has also been suggested that England should bestow on India the boon of free education, and the admission of Indians who desire to enlist as volunteers, both in India and England. If England could rise to this height of statesmanship *now*, she would indeed sit enthroned in India's heart beyond possibility of exile.

Apart from all political and imperial questions, India has offered to her an opportunity that she can only partially utilise. Her great cotton mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur should swiftly fill the gaps which will appear in the market for cotton goods when the goods "made in Germany" are exhausted. And having captured the market, they should hold it by the goodness and comparative cheapness of their goods. The hand-weavers should be encouraged to bestir themselves to meet the increased demand. The strengthening of industries already here is more practicable than the creation of new ones, for most industries need skilled labour, and incompetence cannot replace skill. The Indian labour-market is flooded with men whose answer to the question: "What can you do?" is "I am ready to do anything, Sir"—an answer which is equivalent to: "I can do nothing." Reporters who cannot take down a sentence accurately; proof-readers who cannot spell; authors who cannot write grammatically; these flood the market. The German is a skilled workman, so he captures the world-markets. Indians can do the same at the same cost. But Governments cannot create skill. They can open famine-works; they cannot create factory-workers, glass-makers, match-makers. Hence India cannot profit, as England and America will, by German elimination as a competitor. But we can learn by the present conditions the lesson that we must make ourselves competent; and if that lesson be mastered, the war will have opened the way to Indian prosperity in the near future.

The Times: "The Indian Empire has overwhelmed the British Nation by the completeness and unanimity of its enthusiastic aid.

"It will be our part, when we have settled our affairs with Germany, to see to it that as the years pass she (India) takes an ampler place in the councils of the Empire. Unsought, she has shown loyalty and devotion without stint. We have now to make her feel increasingly that she can best fulfil her destinies and attain her hopes within the British Empire rather than outside it. One of the greatest tasks which lies before British statesmanship in this country is to attach India freely and fully as a component part of the Empire. But India is already solving the problem herself, and we do not doubt the ultimate result."

The Daily News: "The gifts are valuable, but the spirit indicated is of greater consequence. This is a tribute to our rule in India that Englishman can receive without a glow of pride. * * * The bread of freedom which we have cast upon the waters is returning to us after many days."

The Manchester Guardian: "A wonderful reward even for more than a century's efforts to deal justly and clean with India."

The Daily Telegraph: "The Indian leaders of all ranks represent a chivalry and ingrained respect for honourable dealing, which for ageshas been part of their moral being. The ancient civilisations of India would be the last on earth to acquiesce in the doctrines of faithlessness and deliberate violence which form the base of the Prussian creed. * * *

"In an Imperial situation that dazzles the mind by a splendid revelation of universal loyalty and patriotism the attitude of the peoples of India is by far the most wonderful fact."

The Daily Mail: "A day worth living for. . One of the happiest and most inspiring features of the war is the splendid and spontaneous rally of the whole Empire to the side of the Motherland."

INDIAN MUSSALMANS AND THE WAR.

My Mussalman subjects know well that the rupture with Turkey was forced upon me against my will, and I recognise with appreciation and gratitude the proofs they have hastened to give of their loyalty, devotion and support.—*H. M. the King-Emperor.*

H. H. The Nizam's Manifesto.

The following is an English translation of a Manifesto published on the 2nd November, in a *Gazette Extraordinary* of the Hyderabad State, by order of H. H. the Nizam, G.C.S.I. It begins with H. E. the Minister's introduction as follows:—

"The wise and statesmanlike manner in which His Highness has been pleased to issue a *farman* for the guidance and peace of mind of his beloved subjects, in view of recent events in Europe and the turn taken by the war, is published in the *Jarida* for general information. It is to be hoped that the subjects of this State will realise the importance of these directions in their own best interests and the interests of their country and their master and Sovereign, and carry them out fully and completely."

The following are the words of the *Farman*:—

In view of the present aspect of the war in Europe, let it be generally known that at this critical juncture it is the bounden duty of the Mahomedans of India to adhere firmly to their old and tried loyalty to the British Government, especially when there is no Moslem or non-Moslem Power in the world under which they enjoy such personal and religious liberty as they do in India, and when, moreover, they are assured by the British Government that as they have in the past always stood the best friend of Islam, so will they continue to be Islam's best friend, and will always protect and cherish their Moslem subjects.

I repeat and reiterate that, in the crisis before us, the Mahomedan inhabitants of India, especially the subjects of this State, should, if they care for their own welfare and prosperity, remain firm and whole-hearted in their loyalty and obedience, swerve not a hair's breadth from their devotion to the British Government, whose cause, I am convinced, is just and right; keep sacred the tie which binds the subject people to their rulers, and, lastly, that they should in no case allow themselves to be beguiled by the wiles of any one into a course of open or secret sedition against the British Government.

Finally I give expression to the hope that as I, following the tradition of my ancestors, hold myself ever ready to devote my own person and all the resources of my State, and all that I possess, to the service of Great Britain, so will all the Mahomedans of India, especially my own beloved subjects, hold themselves whole-heartedly ready in the same way.

H. H. The Aga Khan's Message.

"With deep sorrow, I find that the Turkish Government, having joined hands with Germany, acting under German orders, is madly attempting to wage a most unprovoked war against such mighty Sovereigns as the King-Emperor and the Tsar of Russia. This is not the true and free will of the Sultan, but of German officers and other non-Muslims who have forced him to their bidding.

"Germany and Austria have been no disinterested friends of Islam, and while one took Bosnia, the other has long been plotting to become suzerain of Asia Minor and Mesopotamia, including Kerbela, Nejef and Baghdad. If Germany succeeds, which Heaven forbid, Turkey will become only a vassal of Germany, and the Kaiser's Resident will be the real ruler of Turkey and will control the Holy Cities. No Islamic interest was threatened in this war, and our religion was not in peril. Nor was Turkey in peril, for the British and Russian Empires and the French Republic had offered to solemnly guarantee to Turkey all her territories in complete independence if she had remained at peace.

"Turkey was the trustee of Islam, and the whole world was content to let her hold our Holy Cities in her keeping. Now that Turkey has so disastrously shown herself a tool in German's hands, she has not only ruined herself, but has lost her position of trustee of Islam, and evil will overtake her. Turkey has been persuaded to draw the sword in an unholy cause, from which she could be but ruined, whatever else happen, and she will lose her position as a great nation, for such mighty Sovereigns as the King-Emperor and the Tsar can never be defeated.

"Thousands of Muslims are fighting for their Sovereign already, and all men must see that Turkey has not gone to war for the cause of Islam, or for the defence of her independence. Thus our only duty as Muslims now is to remain loyal, faithful and obedient to our temporal and secular allegiance."

The Prince of Arcot.

The Prince of Arcot, in the course of his speech recently at Madras, said :—

"We had absolutely no idea that Turkey, who but the other day refused to associate herself with German atrocities, was so helpless in the hands of Germany, or that her Young Party, which is mainly responsible for the present situation, was so deplorably lacking in true statesmanship and patriotism. It does not require superhuman intelligence to understand that the Allies are bound to win in the long run as their power is mighty and their resources endless. Unfortunately Turkey has seen fit to recklessly plunge herself in war and she must bear its dire consequences. What concerns us most is whether this new phase of the war will have any untoward effect on Indian Moslems, and I must answer any such insinuating suggestion with an emphatic and indignant "No". Our loyalty to the British Crown is too deep-rooted to be shaken by such political tornadoes. Besides, the assurance given by His Excellency the Viceroy that the holy places of Islam will be immune from attack by the Allies is in itself conclusive proof of the gracious solicitude on the part of the Government for the religious feelings of the Mahomedans at large. Indian Mussalmans, who are in the peaceful enjoyment of religious liberty, are bound by the tenets of Islam to be truly loyal to our benign and paternal Government."

All-India Moslem League.

The Council of the All-India Moslem League has adopted the following Resolution and wired it to His Excellency the Viceroy :—"(1) The Council of the All-India Moslem League gives expression once more to the deep-rooted loyalty and sincere devotion of the Mussalmans of India to the British Crown, and assures His Excellency the Viceroy that the participation of Turkey in the present war does not and cannot affect that loyalty and devotion in the least degree, and the Council is confident that no Mussalman in India will swerve even to a hair's breadth from his paramount duty to his Sovereign.

"(2) The Council of the All-India Moslem League expresses its deep gratitude to the British Government for the assurance given to its Moslem subjects as to the immunity of the holy places of Islam in Arabia and other places from attack or molestation, and for obtaining similar assurances from its Allies."

A Bahawalpur Manifesto.

The following is a translation of a Note issued in Urdu and circulated broadcast in the Bahawalpur State by Haji Maulvi Rahim Bukhsh, C.I.E., President of the Council of Regency :—

"It is our paramount duty to consider what ought to be the attitude of the Indian Mussalmans, and particularly the people of this *Riasat*, the majority of which are Muhammadans.

"In my opinion, since the war is not a war between Islam and Christianity, and also for the reason that the protection and security enjoyed under the ægis of the British Government have not been enjoyed in India ever before, and for the fact that we are allowed to observe our religious rights without let or hindrance, that life and property are safe, that we can visit the holy places of Islam with unrestrained freedom, and that, if duly qualified, we can attain to high places in the service of the State, I must proclaim it publicly and unreservedly that it is to their own interests that the Mussalmans of India should be earnestly devoted and thoroughly loyal to the British Government."

H. H. The Begum of Bhopal.

In the course of an address to her officers and people, the Begum of Bhopal said :—

"Is it not matter for regret then that Turkey should without any provocation, and that too after the Ottoman Government had, more than once, given assurances of Turkey's neutrality, join hands with the enemies of our British Government? All gentlemen like you have read, I suppose, in the papers how the British Government is now, as ever, having Mahomedan interests at heart. I have every hope that my subjects will show their customary zeal in carrying out my wishes, and I have no doubt they will follow me and my ancestors and predecessors, as well as their own forbears, in remaining firm in their loyalty and devotion to the British Crown."

Holy Places of Islam.

On the declaration of war the following *Gazette Extraordinary* was issued :—

The holy places of Arabia and Jeddah will be immune from attack or molestation by the British naval and military forces as long as there is no interference with pilgrims from India to the holy places and shrines in question. At the request of His Majesty's Government, the Governments of France and Russia have given them similar assurances.

Hon. Mazharul Chaudhury.

The Hon. Mazharul Anwar Chaudhury, Vakil, writes to the *Bengalee* from Hoogly under date the 4th November:—

The action of Turkey appears to me the more inexcusable after the solemn declaration of England, France and Russia, that her territorial integrity would be maintained.

The object of Germany in thus embroiling Turkey in the present war is clearly not so much to gain any help from the Turkish arms as to create dissatisfaction against England among the Mahomedans of India and Egypt. But in this matter she is clearly counting without her host and her expectations, at least so far as the Indian Mahomedans are concerned, are doomed to as complete a disappointment as her hopes of civil war in Ireland.

Turkey cannot blame us for not helping her in the way that we did help her during the Balkan war as her Government, or whatever now passes for it, has disregarded our repeated advice to remain neutral.

Kazi Kabiruddin.

A Bakr Id dinner was recently celebrated at the Islam Club, Bombay. After the loyal toasts were drunk, Mr. Kazi Kabiruddin in proposing the toast for the success of British arms said: The sudden hostile attitude evinced by the Young Turks had deepened the loyalty and attachment of the Indian Mahomedans towards the British Throne, which vouchsafed personal freedom and religious liberty not enjoyed by their co-religionists in any other country. Mahomedans fully realised that this was no religious or holy war. Their sacred places were not in danger. Their pilgrims were not molested or prevented from visiting them. The Sultan had not sanctioned the war. Even the Grand Vazier did not approve of it. Nor had Turkey started it to save an attack or to defend itself. Truly speaking, it was a secular war started by some young ambitious minister who had control of the military, at the instigation of mischievous German officers. The young Turks have no justification to start this war of aggression against a friendly power that had always done them a good turn. The Turks had completely disregarded the unanimous wish of Moslem India to be neutral. Nay, they had done much more. They had heaped insult on the heads of those Moslems who had rendered them great help and services during their last national crisis.

Hon. Mr. M. Haque, Bar.-at-Law.

As long as the Ottomans were defending themselves from the unjust attacks of other nations, the Indian Mussalmans were wholeheartedly with them, but they refuse to be dragged into any aggressive venture that they may choose to take. The Indian Mussalmans have to look to their own interests, and the care of the interests of Islam in their own country is the prime duty that has fallen upon them.

Now, the problem of problems for us, Mussalmans of India, is: What is going to be our attitude in this crisis? It is to be remembered that upon our present attitude depends our future destiny. This is the supreme moment which has arrived in our life-history, and upon its prudent handling rests our existence as a self-respecting and respected community. Personally I have no fear as to the attitude of my co-religionists, but some people doubt the loyalty of the Mussalmans of India. To such I say, with all the emphasis that I can command, that there is no cause for any anxiety whatever. * * * * * *
After all, the real strength of Islam is in India with its seventy millions of Muslim population. This solid and actual strength they cannot sacrifice for a mere sentiment totally at variance with the facts, however strong that sentiment may be. They will not weaken Islam by weakening themselves.

Then the Mussalmans are not an ungrateful people. They do not easily forget past kindness; nor is it possible for them to repay these with black ingratitude. It is not in their nature. Mussalmans of India will act with coolness, keep up their dignity and self-control, will not be unruffled by any untoward events, will not be affected by any of the hostile or unjust criticisms which are so plentiful in these days, and will most assuredly rally to a man by the side of their King-Emperor for the defence of the Empire.

Mahomedan Loyalty.

The following Press Note was issued on November 26: Resolutions, etc., expressing loyalty to the British Government and condemning the attitude of Turkey have been received from the Mahomedans of Radhanpur presided over by His Highness the Nawab of Radhanpur; the Mahomedans of Pandu in Rewa Kantha Agency; sepoys (Mahomedans) of Godhra Panch; Ghanchis (Mahomedans), Borahs (Mahomedans), sepoys and Ghanchis of Dohad Panch Mahals; Mahomedans of Ahmednager and the Borah (Shia) community of Aden.

The Nawab of Palanpur.

The following *forman* appears in a Palanpur *State Gazette Extraordinary*:—

Our bounden duty is to remain firmly loyal to our King-Emperor, whose Government out of pure regard for the religious feelings of their Mahomedan subjects have always treated Turkey as a friend and helped her out of difficulty whenever she stood in need of help. In this war also we know the British Government assured Turkey that they would respect her neutrality and further, even after this unprovoked declaration of Turkey of joining hands with the enemies of our King, His Majesty's Government has assured his Mussalman subjects that the holy places of Arabia and the shrines of Mesopotamia will remain immune from attack or molestation by the British Military and Naval forces.

I, therefore, need not exhort you my subjects to show your usual coolness of mind and loyalty towards me and through me towards the British Government and prove that you cannot be affected by any hostile misguidance or any untoward event but show by your purse, pen and person, as you have so far done, that you will rally to a man by the side of our King-Emperor for the defence of the Empire, that your loyalty will remain deep rooted and unswerving throughout these trying times. I also expect my co-religionists in India to act on my advice in a true Moslem spirit, for our Prophet has enjoined us to remain faithful and loyal to a Government which scrupulously exercises toleration in the performance of our religious duties and offers us facilities in our spiritual affairs.

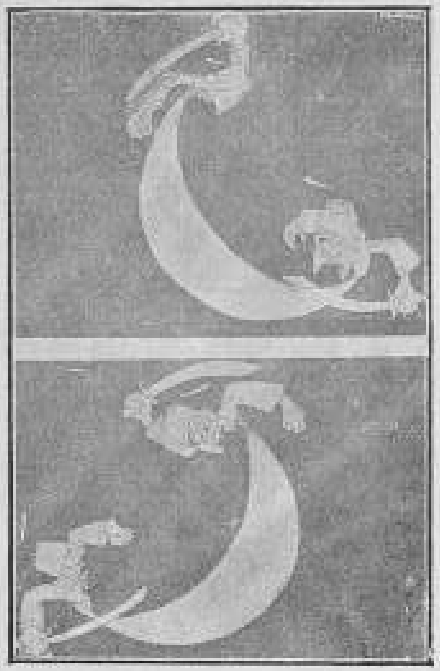
Mr. Yakub Hassan.

Mr. Yakub Hasan writes to the *Indian Review* for November:

A tremor ran through the Muslim India on Sunday, the 1st November, when the news of the Turkish attack on Odessa reached India. Every Muslim pulse vibrated with intense emotion. Our Khalifa was at war with our King! Turkey had placed its very existence at stake and deliberately cast the die! * * * * *

The mighty Powers that ranged themselves to play at the dangerous game of war meant this time to play it doggedly to the finish. The whole world was being irresistibly drawn into the vortex. There was again a call to the Mussalmans all over the world—Mussalmans who owed allegiance to all the three Powers that allied themselves against Germany and Austria who, on the other hand, had hardly any Mussalman subjects to boast of. This time the call was of imperative duty, and nothing in history can match the sincerity and the intensity of the loyalty that burst forth in response as much from Moghuls and Pathans, Shaiks and Syeds of British India, as from Turkomans and Tartars of Russia and Algerians and Tunisians of French Africa. Once more were arrayed on European soil the soldiers of Islam, but they fought not for their own cause, but for the cause of their rulers, which they had albeit made their own. Whatever might be the feelings of French and Russian Mussalmans, there could be no doubt that the loyalty of Indian Moslems was prompted by the sincerest gratitude which they had all along felt for the Government that gave them liberty, education and the rights of enlightened citizenship which Mussalmans outside India did hardly enjoy. But then there was no conflict of Moslem interests; and in fighting the battles of their King they believed they fought for the cause of right and justice against a form of aggression with which they—the Mussalmans—had too familiar an acquaintance in the past not to appreciate it to its fullest significance. But, alas, such a memory availed not to the one Moslem nation that happened to be the nearest to the centre of the storm, but Islam cannot help reaping the whirlwind of their action. Whatever the distress felt—and it is no use disguising that it is being felt keenly enough—it is rather of a sobering nature than an exciting one, and the apparent folly of those responsible for the Turkish participation in the war has estranged from them (but not from their country) the sympathy and goodwill of all Indian Mussalmans—high and low, educated and illiterate. Although this will not prevent their mourning the calamity that might befall this relic of the once mighty empire, however self-inflicted it might be, it does not disturb in the slightest degree the loyalty and devotion of Indian Mussalmans to the British throne. The numerous telegrams of assurances that have poured down upon the Viceroy from responsible public bodies, congregations and special assemblies throughout India are clear proofs, if proofs are needed, of the feelings of deep devotion which Mussalmans entertain towards their Sovereign, and the Government should have no misgivings about a people in whose vocabulary there is only one word for duty, gratitude, honesty and faith; and that is, in short, their *eman*.

CARNEGIE: "I ALMOST WISH I HAD MY MONEY BACK!"



THE OLD AND YOUNG TURKS.
Will it be the Moon's last quarter ?

THE PIED PIPER.

THE SULTAN AND HIS MINISTERS.

SULTAN MAHOMED V.

Mahomed V, Sultan of Turkey, was born in 1844, and was the third son of Sultan Abd-ul-Medjid. He was proclaimed Sultan on April 27th, 1909, in succession to his elder brother Abd-ul-Hamid II, who was deposed by the unanimous vote of the National Assembly.

The succession to the throne, according to Turkish custom, vests in the senior male descendant of the house of Othman, sprung from the Imperial harem. The present Sultan is the thirty-sixth in descent from Othman, the founder of the Empire. The Sultan does not marry, but from the inmates of the harem selects a certain number who are known as ladies of the palace, the others occupying positions subordinate to them. All children born in the harem are held to be of legitimate and equal birth. The eldest son of the Sultan only succeeds when there are no uncles or cousins of greater age than himself.

The Sultan's surviving brothers are the ex-sultan Abd-ul-Hamid; Suleiman Effendi, born 1860; and Wahid-Uddin Effendi, born 1861. The heir apparent is Prince Yussuf Izzed-din, son of the Sultan Abdul Aziz, born 1857, after whom comes the present Sultan's brother Wahid-Uddin.

The civil list of the Sultan is variously reported at from one to two millions sterling. To the Imperial family belong a great number of crown domains, the income from which contributes to the revenue. The amount charged to the Budget of 1912-13 was £ T. 505,880.

The Constitution now theoretically in force is that of 1876, modified by legislation subsequent to 1908. Under the Constitution, the Sultan, who is the protector of the Moslem religion, appoints and dismisses his Ministers, concludes all treaties with foreign powers, declares war, is the head of the military and naval forces, and can dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, but a new election must follow within six months.

Mr. John Macdonald in his *Turkey and the Eastern Question* gives the following vivid account of the calm but secluded life led by Reschid Effendi, the present Sultan before his being called to the throne: "I have kept my composure for the last thirty-three years," was Reschid Effendi's placid answer to the deputies who, having come to announce his election to the throne, asked him to be calm. For thirty-three years Reschid Effendi, Abdul's younger brother, now Mahomed V, had been a prisoner in his palace. In an earlier age, he would have been put to death with his brothers and other possible pretenders. Abdul Hamid treated his prisoner as kindly as was compatible with respect for a barbarous custom. Reschid was permitted to receive visitors, but his servants were spies. He loved music and gardening, and practised both. He read much, chiefly in French, which he speaks and writes fluently. "Reschid Effendi," his brother sometimes remarked, "is a happier man than I am." The prisoner was not allowed to pay visits. But he was free to drive through the city in a closed carriage, with guardsmen trotting at each door and behind. Abdul's subjects feared to mention his name. Superstitious mothers believed that Reschid's was an "evil" eye, and when his carriage came along, they hurried their children out of the way lest the prince should catch sight of them through the window blinds. In time the populace began to doubt whether Reschid was alive, or whether, like his other uncle, Murad V, he had gone out of his mind. Reschid's was a sound mind in a sound body. One secret of his good health was that he lived temperately and never worried himself. What with his reading, and his conversations with his visitors, he had acquired a wide knowledge of political Europe. He showed no elation when the parliamentary conclave formally declared him elected. To the courteous salutation, kindly smile, and paternal look of the new Ruler, as he drove back from the assembly to the palace, the vast crowds responded with shouts of "Long live our Padishah," just as they had done twelve months before to the deposed monarch.

To understand clearly the political history of the reign, it will be necessary for the reader to make himself acquainted with the genesis, aims and activities of the Young Turks, and the development of constitutional reform by the rival groups in that movement. The Young Turks had long prior to 1908 been preparing for the overthrow of the old regimé. Their central organisation was in Paris and their objects were known throughout Europe, but except at Yildiz Kiosk, their power was almost everywhere underrated. They were in some quarters regarded as a body of academic enthusiasts, more noisy than dangerous who devoted their scanty funds to the publication of seditious matter in Paris or Geneva, and sought to achieve the impossible by importing Western institutions into a country fit only to be ruled by

the *sheriat* and the sword. This view was strengthened by the fact that they abstained from violent action realising that a successful revolution would require the support of the army. To gain this, an extensive propaganda was carried on by secret agents, many of whom were officers. Early in 1908 when there was unrest in Arabia and Albania, the Young Turks transferred their headquarters from Paris to Salonica, where a central body known as the Committee of Union and Progress was established to organise the revolution. Most of its members were military officers, prominent among them being Major Enver Bey and Niazi Bey, who directed the propaganda in Albania and Macedonia.

They struck their first blow on the 22nd July 1908, when Niazi Bey and his troops raised the standard of revolt at Resna on the Monastir-Ochrida road. On the 23rd, the Salonica Committee under the presidency of Enver Bey proclaimed the Constitution in Salonica, while the second and third Army Corps threatened to march on Constantinople if the Sultan disobeyed the proclamation. The next day the Sultan yielded and issued an edict restoring the Constitution of 1876 and ordering the election of a Chamber of Deputies. The revolution, except for the assassination of a few unpopular officials, was effected without bloodshed. On the 6th Kiamil Pasha, an advanced Liberal, became Grand Vizier and a Cabinet was formed including a Greek, an Armenian and the Sheik-ul-Islam or head of the Ulema. This success was followed by a serious reaction in the provinces. There were disturbances in Albania, Asia Minor and Arabia. More serious than these local disturbances was the counter-revolution in Constantinople, which began with the revolt of the Grand Vizier, Kiamil Pasha, against the authority of the Salonica Committee. Kiamil was forced to resign on February 14, 1909, and was succeeded by Hilmi Pasha. Strife then arose between the Committee and the Liberal Union, and the editor of the *Serbesk*, the official organ of the Union, was assassinated. His fellow-countrymen in the Constantinople garrison at once made common cause with the opponents of the Committee. Mutinous troops seized the Parliament House and the telegraph offices. Hilmi Pasha, the Grand Vizier, resigned and was succeeded by Tewfik Pasha; and delegates were sent by the Liberal Union and other bodies to discuss terms with the Committee. But the Sultan had issued a free pardon to the mutineers, and the Committee decided that the new regime would never be secure while the Sovereign favoured reaction. They refused to treat with the delegates and despatched 25,000 men under Mahomed Shevket to Constantinople.

The Senate and Chamber met at San Stefano and sitting jointly, as a National Assembly, issued a proclamation in favour of the Committee and its Army (April 22, 1909) by which Constantinople was now invested. Part of the garrison remained loyal to the Sultan, but after five hours of severe fighting, Shevket was able to occupy the capital. The National Assembly met in secret session two days later, voted unanimously for the deposition of Abdul Hamid and chose his younger brother Mahomed Reschid Effendi (born November 1844) as his successor, with the style of Mahomed V. The ex-Sultan was removed to Salonica on the 28th, and on 10th May the new Sultan was formally invested with the sword of Osman. On 5th August 1909, the new Constitution was promulgated by Imperial irade.

There had been trouble with France, prior to Mahomed V.'s accession, over the hinterland of Tripoli, and with Bulgaria in regard to the 'liberation' of Macedonia, riots and bloodshed occurring in various parts of the country, which ended in martial law being proclaimed in Constantinople. In 1908 Bosnia and Herzegovina were annexed by Austria, and in 1909 Bulgaria's claim to independence was accepted. In 1911 Italy forcibly seized Tripoli, and after a year's desultory fighting, Turkey was obliged to sue for peace as fresh trouble was brewing nearer home. The first Turkish Parliament was dissolved in 1912, and a fresh Cabinet was created the same year. The Treaty of London was signed on May 30, 1913, which left Turkey with only a small strip of territory in Europe, extending from Midia on the Black Sea to a point near Central Ibrige on the Ægean. By the Treaty of Bukarest which ended the second Balkan War on August 10, 1913, and the Treaty concluded between Bulgaria and Turkey on September 18, 1913, Bulgaria had to give back a considerable portion of her conquered territories, Turkey receiving twice as much territory as she had left her under the Treaty of London.

Until 1912 the only organised political party was the Committee of Union and Progress. The year saw the rise of the Party of Union and Liberty which, with the aid of the Military League of "Soldier Saviours," effected the *coup d'etat* of July 1912. The Committee, however, effected a counter *coup* in 1913 and returned to power again.

THE SULTAN'S GOVERNMENT.

The Sultan is advised by a Council of Ministers (*Mejliss-i-Khass*) which consists of a Grand Vizier, the Sheik-ul-Islam, and twelve other ministers, who are appointed by the Sovereign and are responsible to the Legislature.

Parliament consists of two Houses, a Chamber of Deputies and a Senate. It meets annually on November 1st, sitting till the following March 1st, though the Sultan can prolong the session if necessary. Senators are appointed by the Sultan from among those who have rendered distinguished service to the State.

In June 1912, the first Turkish Parliament under the Revised Constitution was dissolved. Its successor was dissolved after a short session in August 1912. Since November 1913, Parliament has not been convened, the present Chamber of Deputies having been elected then.

The Chamber of Deputies consists of members elected for four years in the proportion of one Deputy to 50,000 male citizens by ballot. Deputies must not be public servants, must be Ottomans, must be able to read and write Turkish, and must be over 30. Each Deputy receives 20,000 piastres per session and travelling expenses. The President and two Vice-Presidents of the Chamber are appointed by the Sultan from three lists, of three each, of candidates elected by the Chamber. The initiative in legislation rests with the Ministry, but either Chamber can demand the introduction of new or the amendment of existing legislation with the approval of the Sultan, who in that case orders the Council of State to prepare a measure in compliance with the demand. All measures must be passed by both Chambers and sanctioned by the Sultan before becoming law.

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COUNCIL OF MINISTERS.

The present Turkish Government came to power on January 24, 1913, after a *coup d'état*. The Cabinet was reconstructed after the assassination of the Grand Vizier, Mahamud Shevket Pasha in June 1913. Until the end of October last, it consisted of the following members:—

Grand Vizier (Sadr-Azam) and *Minister of Foreign Affairs (Kharidjie-Naziri)*—H. H. Prince Said Halim Pasha of Egypt.

Sheik-ul-Islam and *Minister of Pious Foundations*—Hairi Bey.

Minister of the Interior (Dakhilie)—Talaat Bey.

Chief of Police—(?) Azmi Bey (October 1913).

Minister of Finance (Malie)—Djavid Bey (since resigned).

Financial Adviser—(?) M. Charles Laurent (October 1913).

Director-General of Customs—(?) Sirri Bey (October 1913).

Minister of Justice—Ibrahim Bey.

Minister of Public Instruction (Maarif)—Shukri Bey.

Minister of Marine (Bahrie)—General Jemal Pasha (since resigned).

Assistant to Marine—(?) Rear-Admiral Arthur Limpus (October 1913).

Minister of War (Harbie)—General of Brigade, Enver Pasha.

Minister of Public Works (Tidjaret ve Nafia)—Mahmoud Pasha (since resigned).

Minister of Commerce, Agriculture, Mines and Forests—Suleyman El Bustany Effendi (since resigned).

Minister of Posts and Telegraphs—Oscan Effendi.

President of the Council of State (Chouryi Devlet)—Halil Bey.

Four of the above Ministers resigned early in November, as the result of Turkey's entry into the war, namely, Djavid Bey (Minister of Finance), who has been honourably associated for years past with important financial reforms in Turkey; Mahmond Pasha, Minister of Public Works; General Jemal Pasha, Minister of Marine; and Suleyman El Bustany Effendi, Minister of Mines, Forests, Agriculture and Commerce, a Maronite Catholic. The names of their successors in the Cabinet have not yet been made public.

ENVER PASHA.

By far the most forceful personality in the Turkish Cabinet—for that matter in all the Turkish Dominions—is Enver Pasha, the Minister of War. A leading protagonist of the Revolution, the brilliant young diplomat who signalised himself by his pluck and daring in the Tripolitan War, the hero who re-took Adrianople, he is only 31—an exceptionally early age for even a man of his distinction to be entrusted with so important a portfolio. The son of a respectable Turkish official, he is a young Turk of the most pronounced type. It is said that he is fond of appearing in the streets of Constantinople dressed in khaki uniform. He might be taken for an English officer but his dress is the only English thing about him. He has no love for the British.

In early youth he was given a liberal education and went through the full career at the Turkish Military School. His career at this academy attracted attention and, as might be expected, young Enver was sent off to Germany where he received a German military education, with what result we see to-day. He has firm faith in the big battalions of the Kaiser. A brilliant, dashing, bold and resourceful youth, he has had considerable luck and has shewn great pluck in numerous adventures. After the revolutionary movement of 1908 he was sent to Berlin as military attaché. While there, he imbibed or strengthened those German sympathies which he retains in common with many officers in the Turkish Army to this day. In Berlin he was popular, but there as everywhere he was regarded as a young man in a hurry, and *Simplicissimus* hit off his temperament when it depicted him as a Napoleon lacking nothing but his Waterloo. His vanity is his weakness, and the Germans have made the most of this defect in his character.

On January 17, 1913, when the Peace Conference was sitting in London, the Powers intervened with a Collective Note advising Turkey to make peace. Turkey had before this broken off negotiations with the Balkan Allies, as their demands, which turned principally upon Adrianople, were considered inadmissible. Indications that the Porte would give way led to a *coup d'état* on January 23rd in which Nazim Pasha was killed. In the fate which befel the Turkish generalissimo, Enver Pasha is suspected of having had a share. What actually happened was that a military deputation headed by Enver entered the room when the Cabinet was drafting a reply to the Powers on the subject of the cession of Adrianople, and tried to dictate to the Council what it should say. Nazim, who had bravely gone out to oppose them, was shot dead by the demonstrators after an altercation, which led to the resignation of the old veteran Kiamil Pasha. Taking advantage of the outbreak of hostilities between Bulgaria and her former Allies, the Turkish troops led by Enver in July advanced on Adrianople and reoccupied it on the 20th in violation of the Peace of London—a feat which made him acclaimed as a national hero throughout the Empire.

On the outbreak of the Italian War, Enver hurried from Berlin, where he held the post of Turkish Minister, to Tripoli, where he laboured with all his might to organise a Turko-Arab combination.

On the 23rd July 1908, three months after the late King Edward's memorable journey to Reval, Major Niazi Bey's mutiny at Resna, a small town near Monastir, gave the signal to the Young Turk Revolution. The next day, his intimate friend and colleague, Enver Bey, proclaimed the Constitution at Salonika. The ideal of Riza Bey—the founder of the party of Union and Progress and the first Mahomedan speaker of the Parliament—and his associates was a new Turkish Empire "one and indivisible," in which Christian compatriots should be Ottomanised citizens, and the Koran, Enver declared, contained no prohibition, direct or indirect, against the service of Christian soldiers in the armies of the faithful.

Enver's chance came to him after the assassination at the Porte of his erstwhile friend, Nazim Pasha, the Turkish generalissimo during the Balkan War and the fall of Adrianople. By a daring *coup* he retook that fortress, and was at once hailed as the deliverer of his country by his Young Turk adherents. That event and his marriage into the Imperial family seem to have turned his head, and like an imitation Napoleon he has since been revolving wild schemes of ambition within himself. His German friends also flattered and cajoled him into believing himself to be another Napoleon. He had not despaired of his country in the blackest part of her recent history. He is obsessed with the idea of restoring Turkey to her former greatness by regaining the territories which she lost since her crushing defeat before Vienna in 1683. He sits for hours in his room, with busts of Napoleon round him, reading and studying and planning campaigns, and chafing at the stupidity and apathy and backwardness of his own people. Turkey's plan of campaign in

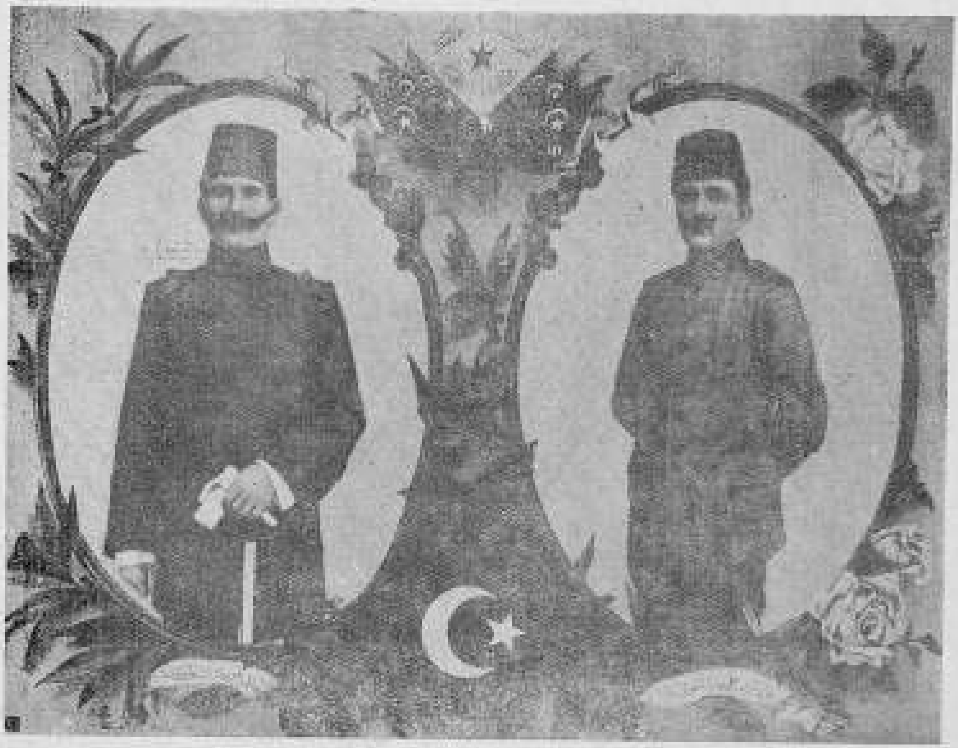
H. I. M. MAHOMED V.
The Sultan of Turkey.

H. R. H. YOUSUFF EZUDDIN.
The Crown Prince of Turkey.

DJAVID BEY.

THE CROWN PRINCE.

TALAAT BEY.



THE LATE NIAZI BEY.
Who fought in the Balkan War.

ENVER PASHA.
The Leader of the Young Turks.

WHO PAYS?

The Outlook.

ANOTHER TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

the present war, as conceived by him, is one of truly Napoleonic dimensions. The Turkish Army is to be divided into three parts: the first under the command of Turgut Pasha is to operate in the Caucasus; the second commanded by Izzet Pasha or Mahmud Moukhtar against Egypt; and the third under Enver Pasha is to co-operate in the campaign in Europe. This plan is part of a dream of Imperial restoration, and of the idea of reconquering the lost territory in Europe.

Since the feat which at once made him famous, he has continuously remained in office since January 24, 1913, when the present Government came to power after the *coup d'état*.

The spirit of the ultra-patriotic party under Enver Pasha, who seized the executive power and gave orders for the opening of hostilities at Odessa, was reflected several weeks prior to this occurrence by a dramatic shooting affray in the Crown Prince's home. The details now available show that Prince Izzedin, the Sultan's eldest son, who visited King George on a special mission at the time of the Durbar, had asked the Ministers to his house to discuss the situation. Enver Pasha, like the other guests, was pledged to keep the conference a secret; nevertheless he took with him General Von Sanders, the German Commander-in-Chief, to the meeting to which only Cabinet Ministers had been asked. The Crown Prince was annoyed at the intrusion, but maintained a dignified silence. He opened the discussion with the remark that Turkey had done well to remain neutral—a sentiment which was re-echoed by the Grand Vizier, the Ministers of Finance and Commerce, who recently resigned, and the Sheik-ul-Islam, or religious head. Enver, however, disagreed, and called upon General Von Sanders to explain how intervention would benefit Turkey. The Prince interposed with the remark that the General had no right to express his opinion or oppose the views of the heir to the Throne or the Cabinet. Enver retorted that the General would speak as a Turkish officer, whereupon the Prince explained that it was purely owing to the War Minister's error of judgment that the General was present at all at the meeting. Enver, beside himself, made an unparliamentary remark, to which Prince Izzedin replied that his head was swollen by his position. The *denouement* was unfortunate. Enver and his German protege rose to leave, but in his rage the former touched his revolver menacingly. The Prince, recollecting Shevket's and Nazim's fate, drew his own pistol and fired several shots, wounding both Enver and Sanders, who left.

Enver Pasha succeeded the late Grand Vizier Mahomed Shevket Pasha as Minister of War after the latter's assassination in June 1913. Mahomed Shefket, who like Enver had been trained in Germany, worked day and night until his assassination to produce a better army on a German model, and especially more skilful officers. After the collapse of Turkish organisation in the Kirk-Kilissi and Lule Burgas campaign of 1912, the Government devoted its main energy to military reforms. Enver continued the reform of Shevket and has been no less diligent than he in the task of military reorganisation. Under him, as under his predecessor, the number of German officers who have been brought to Turkey has largely increased. At present they swarm in the streets of Constantinople. There has been a simultaneous change of the Turkish *personnel*. Today the army is entirely denuded of its senior officers. Enver Pasha, the chief of staff, knowing well the political tendencies of various Colonels and Majors, forcibly retired them by the thousand but a few months ago and replaced them with Union and Progress men. Yet these seniors were the only officers who behaved well in the Balkan War and brought with them fighting experience from the Yemen and the Turko-Greek War of 1898. Enver Pasha has made other amazing changes in the army since the last war.

Enver has been called the *enfant terrible* of Turkish politics. Indeed the unfortunate part of the situation for Enver Pasha is the fact that the Ottoman Army has sunk to being an undisciplined rabble, owing to various upheavals in the realms of tradition, and that the vast majority of the Asiatic troops are utterly apathetic, if not absolutely disaffected. Like the would-be-Napoleon of Germany, the Turkish dictator—so competent critics forecast—is sure to have a severe awakening. To such an extent are Enver Pasha and his party looked upon as a national peril by the older Turks that there is a strong feeling in Turkey that the presumption of the New Turk Party must before long lead to the extinction of Turkey as a European Power. This feeling was reflected in the message sent by the leader of the Turkish Opposition to the French Premier that by her recent raid on the Black Sea Ports, Turkey had simply signed her death-sentence.

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THE GRAND VIZIER.

H. H. Prince Said Halim Pasha of Egypt is the Grand Vizier (*Sadr-Azam*) and Minister of Foreign Affairs (*Kharidjie-Naziri*) in the present Cabinet (*Mejliss-i-Khass*). He was the President of the Council of State in the previous Shevket Cabinet. On June 12, 1913, Shevket Pasha, while on his way in his motor car to the Sublime Porte, was shot at and killed. His Ministry—which was ushered in by the assassination on the 23rd January preceding of Nazim Pasha, the Minister of War and Commander-in-Chief, who was shot while a mob of demonstrators led, it was said by Colonel Enver Bey (now Enver Pasha)—who were assembled before the Sublime Porte was thus also ended by a political murder.

Prince Said Halim, who has been in public life for more than a quarter of a century, is described by those who know him as an essentially honest man who entered office with the one desire to aid in establishing a reformed Turkey. Until the end of last July, his Government had continued in the path of useful reforms. The more important of these were the remodelling of the streets of Constantinople; the abrogation of the series of treaties between the Porte and the European Powers, known as the Capitulations, the regulating of the position of non-Ottoman subjects residing in Turkey; the drafting of laws striking at the centralisation which has been one of the curses of Turkish rule; and the introduction of better government in distracted Armenia. After the Tripolitan and Balkan Wars, the country's supreme need was peace. These had disorganised her trade and denuded her of men and money. The necessity for setting her administrative house in order was very pressing, and the Cabinet, notwithstanding the adverse influence of the war party, had resolutely pursued the one aim of peaceful development. This was before August last.

With the outbreak of the European War, symptoms of general unrest were dimly discernible in the capital and the provinces. The pendulum swung alternately towards war and neutrality every few days, but eventually the military party carried their point. The *denouement* came like a bolt from the blue, Turkey without *casus belli* or the usual declaration of war raiding the Russian ports on the Black Sea on October 29.

The situation, which preceded Turkey's entry into the war, was almost Gilbertian. When it became known that the Turkish squadron had raided the Black Sea ports, Prince Said Halim sent to inquire at the Russian Embassy if it was true—a circumstance which clearly proved that the military had usurped all authority, and that the sober party of Liberal accord had ceased to have a determining voice in Turkish politics. Prince Said Halim, when confronted with this dangerous situation, at once apologised to the Powers and assured the British Ambassador that Turkey would not embark on war. Finding, however, that all his efforts to preserve neutrality ended in failure, he made repeated desperate efforts to resign office like Djavid Bey and some of his other colleagues, but he was threatened with Court Martial by the military party, and so has continued in his position.

TALAAT BEY.

One of the best known colleagues of Prince Said Halim in the present Cabinet is Talaat Bey, Minister of the Interior. He is regarded in some quarters as a firebrand of the Enver Pasha type, although that genial optimist, Sir Edwin Pears—who like the pessimist, Dr. E. J. Dillion, is one of the most competent of living authorities on Turkey—is inclined to think otherwise. In the November *Contemporary Review*, Sir Edwin writes that Talaat "impressed those he met in England with the openness of his mind and good judgment. He has done nothing to discredit this impression."

The question which confronted the Young Turks after the revolution of July 1908 and their victory over the counter revolution of April 1909 was how to create some form of moderate theocratical absolutism over the non-Turkish elements of the Empire. Talaat Bey, then as now the head of the Ministry of the Interior, showed that he possessed the necessary *virtus* and vigour to control the vast machine of internal administration throughout the Empire. The difficulty of the task will be realised when it is explained that the men on the spot, the Valis, Mutessarifs and Kaimakams, are not only responsible for the maintenance of order and security in the districts committed to their charge, they constitute the point of contact between the Government and the population; and it is the character of that contact which determines whether the influence of the Government in the daily life of the people shall be for good or for evil. Decentralisation *à la Turque* was one thing, decentralisation *à la Europeene* quite another as abhorrent to the two rival groups of Young Turks—the party of Kiamil Pasha and the Union and Progress leaders. Kiamil became Grand Vizier in 1912 and his party, while adhering to the

Revolution settlement, set its face against the centralising policy of the Committee. The Sultan had rejected the project of a viceroyalty of Macedonia, and an Inspector-General, Hilmi Pasha, was appointed instead. The young Turks saw in the Powers' scheme of reform for Macedonia the first step to the break-up of Turkey in Europe. Meantime the Macedonian Greeks and Bulgars had combined, and the Turkish atrocities at Kochana aroused the war fever in Macedonia and Bulgaria. The Union and Progress Jacobins were beaten, but Kiamil and his colleagues were also young Turks. Their ideal also was the organisation of all the races into a new Turkish people. European mediation, therefore, was as intolerable to Kiamil and the "Liberal Entente," otherwise "Union and Liberty" Party, as to Talaat Bey, the firebrand of the "U and P" Jacobins.

When the young Turk regime began to exhibit repressive tendencies in Macedonia and elsewhere Enver was associated with the extremists, and when the extremists went out in disgrace shortly before the great Balkan War, it became apparent that he and his associates, Talaat and Djavid Beys, would have nothing to do with regulating the great conflict then already brewing as a result of their policy. Talaat, who like Enver, is a sincere patriot and possesses far more political sagacity than his colleague, proceeded to the front as a private soldier and was brought back from Kirk Kilisse to Constantinople bound with ropes, as a spreader of anti-patriotic doctrine. The effect of the overwhelming reverses, which Turkey suffered in the Balkan War, was reflected in the general political situation at the beginning of last year. Although worsted in fighting, the desire of Talaat Bey and his friends and of the Army was to refuse peace, if peace means the surrender of the greater part of the Ottoman dominions in Europe, and Adrianople in particular. Accordingly the tension between the two rival groups became very accentuated. The leaders of the Union and Progress Party, including Talaat Bey, had been arrested at the end of 1912, but almost immediately released, and their intrigues in the following January resulted in a successful *coup d'Etat*. Headed by Talaat Bey and Enver Bey, the young Turks ousted the Kiamil Cabinet and installed Mahmud Shefket as Grand Vizier.

MAHMUD MOUKHTAR PASHA.

Mahmud Moukhtar Pasha, the son of the gallant Field-Marshal Ghazi Ahmed Moukhtar Pasha, who commanded in the Asiatic theatre of war during the campaign in Armenia in 1877, is now and for the past eighteen months has been Ottoman Ambassador in Berlin. His father was virtually exiled by the ex-Sultan, Abdul Hamid, and nominated High Commissioner in Cairo, where he lived, honoured and respected by all Englishmen for close on thirty years. His son, the present Ambassador in Berlin, threw in his lot with the Young Turk Party and in 1895 approached Sir Philip Currie with a view to deposing the then Sultan and replacing his brother Murad on the throne. Sir Philip refused to listen to the delegates of the Young Turk Party. Mahmud Moukhtar was suspected, and fled to Egypt where he took refuge with his father, but when the Revolution broke out in 1908 he returned to Constantinople and was placed at the head of the First Army Corps.

Mahmud Moukhtar had been educated in Germany, and he trained his men with the severity of a Potsdam Grenadier. When the counter-Revolution broke out the following year, Mahmud barely escaped with his life to Salonica, whence he marched with Shevket Pasha's Army to the capital. He was deprived of his rank and made civil Governor of Smyrna by the new party with whom he was not popular, but was soon after recalled, and as any round peg in Turkey is supposed to fit into any square hole, he was nominated Minister of Marine. His absolute honesty was not to the taste of that very corrupt department. Admiral after Admiral was removed from his post. Contract after contract was annulled and the Minister himself came to England to arrange for the building of the new battleships for the Ottoman Fleet, one of which now figures in the British Navy list as H. M. S. *Erin*. German influence was still strong within him and Mahmud Moukhtar purchased at the command of the Kaiser two obsolete battleships from the Imperial Navy.

On the outbreak of the Balkan War, Mahmud Moukhtar was placed in command of the Third Army Corps, and perhaps more than any other General showed tactical ability in the field. Badly wounded in repelling a Bulgarian attack on the outer defences of the capital, Mahmud Moukhtar Pasha was permitted to go to Germany for treatment, and during his absence his many enemies

plotted for his downfall. He was deprived of his Military rank and placed on the retired list, but owing to the personal intervention of the Emperor William, who needed his services in connection with the contemplated European War, he was made Ottoman Ambassador in Berlin.

Mahmud Moukhtar, whose knowledge of Egypt is unrivalled, is now said to be busy organising a Germano-Turkish invasion of Egypt. He married an aunt of the present Khedive, and owns through her large properties in Cairo and also in the Delta, the income of the Princess in good "cotton years" exceeding £50,000.

What Mahmud Moukhtar Pasha does not know of Egypt is not worth knowing, writes a British officer, who knows him intimately. "For years and years he has bemoaned the weakness of his Government, which has permitted such a rich possession to remain in our hands, and though it is rash to enter into the realms of prophecy, I venture to predict that Mahmud Moukhtar Pasha will be found either at the head of the invading army or else that he will be the directing spirit pulling the strings of invasion."

According to this British officer, who has known Mahmud Moukhtar since he was a lad of fourteen, his proclivities in early youth were wholly English and his one desire was to enter our Military College at Woolwich. This was refused, and he went instead to Berlin, where he remained for eight years qualifying for the Staff. He then returned to Constantinople as an instructor at the Military College under Von der Goltz, threw in his lot with the Young Turk Party, was exiled and now is playing a leading part in organising the Turkish plan of campaign.

DJAVID PASHA.

Djavid Pasha, ex-Minister of Finance, who left Prince Said Halim Pasha's Cabinet in consequence of Turkish intervention in the present war is one of the best known men in Turkey.

He was identified with the important financial reforms effected by the reformed Parliament of 1909. The Macedonian International Commission of Finance was dissolved in September of that year, and its members re-appointed to a higher finance board for the whole Empire. Djavid Bey (as he then was) was appointed President of this Board. The *Times* wrote of his administration of the Turkish finances in 1909: "Honest and capable management of the finances such as Djavid Bey seems determined to secure is the first essential of good government." A Commission, the successor of many, was instituted at his suggestion in 1910 to draw up proposals for settling the confusion in the administration of finances. In his Budget speech of that year, he demanded authority to create a new aluminium coinage of 5, 10, 20 and 40 para pieces, of which he proposed to issue in the course of three years a nominal amount of £ T. 1,000,000 to those provinces, in which there was a scarcity of small coins.

In 1910-11, General Djavid Pasha was sent out with General Torghut Pasha to Northern Albania to deal with the discontent in that province. The Young Turks had opposed the adoption of the Roman character by the Albanians as being incompatible with their scheme of imperial unity, and attempted to suppress their patriarchial constitution of society. The two Turkish Generals employed Draconian methods to stamp out disaffection and literally carried on a war of extermination in Epirus, which resulted in an Albanian-Montenegrin *entente*. This was fatal to the Young Turk ideal, and was one of the contributory causes of the Balkan War which broke out on September 30, 1912.

THE SHEIK-UL-ISLAM.

The Sheik-ul-Islam is the head of the Church, and presides over the *Ulema* or general body of lawyers and theologians. He is appointed by the Sultan with the nominal concurrence of the Ulema.

The Koran is the legal and theological code upon which the fundamental laws of the Empire are based. The State religion is that of Islam, but the State protects the free exercise of all faiths known in the Empire and maintains the religious privileges given to the different communities.

The Ulema forms a powerful corporation and its head, the Sheik-ul-Islam, ranks as a State functionary almost co-equal with the Grand Vizier.

Until quite recent times, the conservative and fanatical spirit of the Ulema had been one of the greatest obstacles to progress and reform in a political system, in which spiritual and political powers were intimately interwoven. Of late years, there has been a gradual assimilation of broader views by the leaders of Islam in Turkey, at any rate, at Constantinople; and the revolution of 1908 and its affirmation in the spring of 1909 took place not only with their approval but with their active assistance.

Until the revolution of 1908, the Government of Turkey was a theocratic absolute monarchy subject to the direct personal control of the Sultan, who was himself a temporal autocrat—which he now is not—and the spiritual head or Caliph (the successor of the Prophet), which he still is.

THE TURKISH ARMY AND NAVY

THE TURKISH ARMY.

Until recently military service had been theoretically compulsory on all Moslems, but Christians had not been allowed to serve. The burden of defence fell therefore on about 11 million Moslems out of a total population of about 25 millions of all creeds and races. Under the new regime, the advisability of incorporating Christians in the Army has been recognised, and in August, 1909, a decree was promulgated extending the obligation of military service to non-Musulmans, but the practical difficulty of fully reforming the recruiting law has been found very considerable. Liability commences at the age of 20 and lasts for 20 years. Service in the first line or active army called the Nizam is for 9 years. The soldier next passes to the Redif or second line and remains in it for another 9 years. Finally he completes his service with two years in the Mustahfiz. The total service is thus twenty years, but annually some recruits are passed direct from the active army to the second line of the Redifs after only nine months' training. The army is divided into fourteen army corps and five independent divisions. The Peace Effective is about 380,000 of all ranks; the War Effective exceeds 1,600,000. The infantry are armed with a Mauser repeating rifle.

The Turkish army is of far more account than her navy, although the recent Balkan War proved that even her undoubtedly fine military material suffers severely from the general blight of maladministration. To what extent, if any, since the Balkan War, honest efforts have been made and have succeeded in reorganising on efficient lines the military resources of the Empire, probably the result of her participation in the present war may show.

At the outbreak of the Balkan War the Ottoman Army was thought to have undergone a complete reorganisation under the care of German officers and to have been effectually modernised. Certainly Turkey had devoted enormous efforts to improve her military position, and much money had been devoted to the object. Parts of the army now, as formerly, were always on active service in Albania, Yemen, and other rebellious districts. Marshal von der Goltz, with a staff of about 20 German officers, had resumed his duties in regard to the organisation and training of the forces, while many Turkish Subalterns were attached to the German Army. A military council had been called into existence, and the organisation of an army staff completed. The steady increase in the number of infantry battalions—from 168 in 1854 to 360 with 96 skeleton reserve battalions in 1911, with a promise under the new law of an increase to 527—seemed a mark of steady and continuous policy. But the processes of mobilisation were slow; well-trained officers were altogether inadequate in numbers, proper organisation of transport and the rearward services of the army was wanting, and under the new regime, the confidence of the army in its officers and the spirit of discipline in the officers themselves had been seriously shaken by military *pronunciamentos* and the breakdown of traditional principles in State and Society.

In 1911 there had been a reorganisation of the forces in 14 army corps. The number of corps to be maintained by each region was as follows: Thrace (4), Macedonia (3), Armenia (3), Syria (linked to the Macedonian command), Mesopotamia (2), Yemen (1); there were further 5 independent divisions: (Hedjaz, Tripoli, and 3 in Albania). There were in all 43 Nizam, 35 First Redif and 19 Second Redif Divisions, and 14 brigades of cavalry (one to each army corps).

Under the new recruiting law designed both to emphasise the new social principles and to relieve the burden of conscription borne by the Osmanlis or Turks proper, non-Mohammedans were for the first time made liable for conscription. This step perhaps did more than anything to weaken the moral force of the army, while to make matters worse the new regulations were made retrospective, so that Christians who had already paid for exemption found themselves enrolled as reservists. Moreover the nomad Arabs, although liable to service by law, furnished no recruits, and many Kurds evaded service.

The irregular "Hamidieh" cavalry is raised among the Kurds and was being reorganised in tribal regiments, but only 24 of these could be formed.

The peace strength number (1910) 281,658 with perhaps 250,000 Reserves, and 200,000 First Redifs. This, with the younger Mustahfiz and the whole of the Second Redifs would constitute well over 1,000,000 men, 750,000 of them fully trained. But only a portion of the total effort in arms could be delivered at one time or in one place, though in a prolonged campaign the reserve strength of the Empire was bound to tell.

THE TURKISH NAVY.

For some time past we have been hearing a great deal about the Ottoman navy. This is due in a great measure to the extraordinary circumstances attendant upon the conduct of the present war in Europe. The detention of the *Goeben* and the *Breslau*, two German warships now floating on the Turkish waters and liveried with the Ottoman colours, was the first step in the Turkish intervention. These two vessels have afforded a great accession of strength to the Sultan who holds one of the most strategic positions in Europe.

The Turkish navy crews are raised in the same manner as the land forces, partly by conscription and partly by voluntary enlistment. The period of service in the navy is twelve years, five in active service, three in the reserve, and four in the Rediff. The nominal strength of the navy is 6 vice-admirals, 11 rear-admirals, 208 captains, 289 commanders, 228 lieutenants, 187 ensigns, and 30,000 sailors, besides about 9,000 marines.

Besides the newly acquired *Goeben* and *Breslau*, the strength in ships in October, 1914, were:—

3 Dreadnoughts:—*Osman I*, *Reshadieh*, and *Fatih*.
4 Old Battle Ships:—*Messoudiyeh*, *Torghout Reiss*, *Barbarouss*, and *Haireddine*.
2 Cruisers:—*Medjidieh* and *Hamidiyeh*.

Of these, the battleship *Reshadieh*, which was launched for Turkey by the Vickers Co., at Barrow in 1913, was bought by Great Britain on war being declared as was the *Osman I*, then completing at Elswick.

There are also torpedo gunboats *Peik-i-shevket* and *Berk-i-savkt* of 22 knots; *Pelenkideria* of 19 knots and a variety of small gunboats; 8 destroyers and 9 torpedo boats. The Ottoman navy has been in the course of reorganization since 1909 under a British admiral and a British staff of navigating, torpedo and gunnary officers. But latterly the Germans have strongly won over the British in their influence over the Ottoman policy, the result of which is being witnessed in the great conflict now waging around "the Sick Man of Europe." The British Naval Mission, under Rear-Admiral A. H. Limpus, returned to England at the end of September 1914.

THE EGYPTIAN ARMY

Service in the Egyptian Army is nominally compulsory on all Egyptian subjects between the ages of 19 and 27. The recruits required each year are chosen by ballot, but professors, students and certain others are exempt. Exemption may also be purchased for £E 20 if paid before the ballot.

Mahomet Ali was the first to use conscription among the fellahs. The system employed was so much loathed and dreaded, that the peasants mutilated themselves rather than become soldiers. Even those who had blinded themselves in one eye or cut off the fingers on their right hand were enlisted, men with injured hands being taught to shoot from the left shoulder.

The existing army was disbanded after the Arabi revolt in 1882, and the organisation of a new army and the police were entrusted to two British officers—Sir Evelyn Wood as Sirdar or Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian Army, and General Baker as Inspector-General of Police. The peace effective is limited by law to 18,000 combatants. The Commander-in-Chief is appointed by Khedival decree with the consent of the British Government.

In 1885 an equitable law of recruitment was made and greatly improved upon at the dawn of the new century. Universal liability—for six years in the army, five in the police, and four in the reserve—is still the rule, but only a small percentage is taken and the men are selected. Thus only a fraction of the men liable actually serve. Service is for three years. 188 British officers are attached to the Egyptian army. The army consists of five squadrons of cavalry, a camel corps, five battalions, 18 battalions of infantry (of which six are Sudanese), a railway battalion and various departments. Most of the higher posts are held by British officers. In the Sudanese battalions service is voluntary. The bulk of the army garrison the Sudan.

The British forces stationed in Egypt, known as the Army of Occupation, number 6,000 men. They consist of a cavalry regiment, a horse artillery battery, a mountain battery, a company of engineers, and four battalions stationed in the Nile Delta; and of a battalion of infantry and detachment of garrison artillery stationed in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The Egyptian Government contributes £150,000 towards the cost of these troops.

THE WAR AND THE BOY SCOUTS

THE War has brought in clear relief the extraordinary importance of the Boy Scouts in the various theatres of operation. The name of Lieut.-General Sir Robert Baden-Powell is associated with the Boy Scout Movement. Started in 1908, it is destined to have a wide-spread influence in promoting good citizenship and in creating and fostering a sense of self-reliance, honour, patriotism, fair dealing and sympathy. Established on a non-religious basis, boys of all nationalities and creeds are eligible for enlistment and, although only six years have elapsed since Sir Baden-Powell's scheme took form and shape, it has caught on in all parts of the world and even helped to form and to develop the Girl-Guide Movement, as a part of the military scheme, which the Boy-Scout Movement really is.

The South African War with the Boers first gave birth to the idea. The Boer way of waging war was a revelation to the British Officers, and the great value of information—to guard against surprises, to outwit the enemy by stolen marches, to determine the course of advance and defence, to know the way across the trackless veldt, was felt and Boy-Scouts, tried for the first time by Lord Edward Cecil at Mafeking, having performed most meritorious service in this respect, Sir Baden-Powell, after the war ceased, began the organization in England of Boy-Scouts. The Colonies followed suit and even in India there are Companies of Boy-Scouts now formed in every important town and city.

A Scout in the Army is what a Ranger was in the war with American Indians in former times, and the valuable information obtained by him is always of the greatest use to Commanding Officers. The Head of the Boy-Scouts is called the Chief Scout, and there are Scout-Masters in charge of two or more patrols, each patrol having a leader of its own. A certain number of Scouts form a patrol, which has for its sign some bird or beast, and the patrol "call" is an imitation of the cry of that particular creature. In other words, each patrol has as its *totem* some bird or beast. Mr. Andrew Lang writing on Totemism says:—"This very extraordinary institution, whatever its origin, cannot have arisen except among men capable of conceiving kinship and all human relationships as existing between themselves and all animate . . . things." The Boy Scout patrol does not, of course, carry the totemistic idea into other relationships of life, but there can be no doubt that the spirit of kinship or *camaraderie* is created and maintained by the adoption of a particular emblem or totem, with which the members, forming a patrol, are associated. Any boy over ten years of age may be entertained as a Scout, and is classed as a 'tenderfoot' till he has been thoroughly trained.

The training consists of knowing the Scouts' laws, signs and salutes; of what the Union Jack means and how it should be flown; of how to tie a reef, sheet-bend, close-hitch, bowline middle man's and sheepshank. The Scout has to swear an oath on his honour to do his duty to God and the King, to help others at all times and to be obedient to the Scout laws. A perfect Scout should know something of the common language of the country he is serving in, something of physical geography, of draughtsmanship and mensuration, to make intelligible plans and sketches and something of tactical points. Physically and mentally the Boy-Scout must be alive to the finger tips, and morally *sans peur et sans reproche.*

The Uniform of the Boy Scout is well adapted for the work he has to do. He is pitcuresque even in khaki from the crown of his soft khaki coloured, flat brimmed hat to his boots, a loose khaki shirt with dark handkerchief knotted at the throat. With short knickers, putties or stockings and with a long staff the Boy Scout looks workmanlike and, what is of more importance, comfortable.

During the present war the Boy Scout has responded with surprising alacrity and success to the many calls on his activity. while the Girl Guides have also been extremely useful. Thousands of letters have been delivered for the Relief Fund asking the public for help without the delay and expense of postage. The Scouts have burdened themselves with the collection of garments and comforts of all kinds, for the Army at the front have cordially assisted doctors and nurses in ministring to the wounded in ambulance work, in doing "sentry-go," often doing their duty for long hours without food or rest, and in bad weather without a murmur. Boys in the public schools of England, often in mimic warfare, emulated the feats of Robin Hood and his merrymen, of Fitz James and Rob Roy, McGregor and Chinganggook and the Pathfinder, heroes of boyish admiration, and the Boy Scout Movement will diminish nothing of such admiration but will give boys something more to do than merely to imitate at play these great exemplars of phenomenal daring and exceeding craft.

THE BENGAL FLOATING HOSPITAL

The naming ceremony or *namkaranam* of the floating hospital of the Bengal Ambulance Corps was performed on Saturday the 8th May in the presence of a large and representative gathering of European and Indian officials and non-officials by H. E. Lord Carmichael, who came specially from Darjeeling for this purpose. The vessel was lying moored opposite Prinsep's Ghat where the ceremony took place. Much interest centred in a contingent of some forty of the Ambulance Corps who form the *personnel* of the floating hospital.

The Maharajadhiraj of Burdwan, in inviting His Excellency to perform the ceremony, recounted the history of the Ambulance Scheme, expressing gratitude to His Excellency, Mr. Gourlay, Sir Pardey Lukis, and Col. Nott, I.M.S., at the successful result and also paid a tribute to the energy of Dr. Sarvadhikari and Babu B. N. Basu. The members of the Corps were all of good medical education and some of them had even given up lucrative civil employment for patriotic duty. The total cost was Rs. 2,10,000, of which Rs. 1,40,000 had been promised, Rs. 42,000 was already paid, and Rs. 70,000 was yet to be raised. The Maharajadhiraj promised to contribute one rupee for every nine raised to complete the total. The *Bengali* is one of the most admirably equipped vessels. Everything has been done to make the floating hospital a perfect model of its kind. The designs and the equipments are of the most up-to-date character and no pain or expense has been spared to make the floating hospital as self-sufficing as possible. She is a flat with two decks of about 200 feet in length and 20 feet in width with a two-foot draft. She can accommodate 1,000 men and 4,000 tons of cargo. On the Upper Deck will be placed the Hospital consisting of 100 beds, two operating rooms, one sterilizing room, and an X-Ray room with an enclosure for microscopic work. Besides these, there will be segregation wards, sanitary conveniences, dressing rooms, etc. The Lower Deck will accommodate officers, men and camp followers, and will have the dispensary, store rooms, etc., located there. The ship will be lighted by electricity throughout and will have a number of electric fans. It will also have an ice machine, refrigerators, motor ambulance and other up-to-date contrivances and conveniences, such as lifts, etc. Regarding the significance of the movement, he said :—

It is true that a larger scheme has been shelved, or rather abandoned and in consequence of that the spirit of a large number of patriotic Bengalis has been damped. But whilst regretting that fact, whilst still thinking that it was a great mistake that regular volunteers from Bengal were not allowed to be constituted to go to the field of action, we are grateful for the smaller achievement and every Bengali should be proud of this national offer. It marks the beginning of a new and memorable era. The young men who are going in this ship prove that Bengali boys have got real grit in them and that, if properly moulded and trained, they can be worthy of being regulars in the military services of the King-Emperor.

H. E. the Governor in the course of his reply began with reading the following telegram from H. E. the Viceroy :—

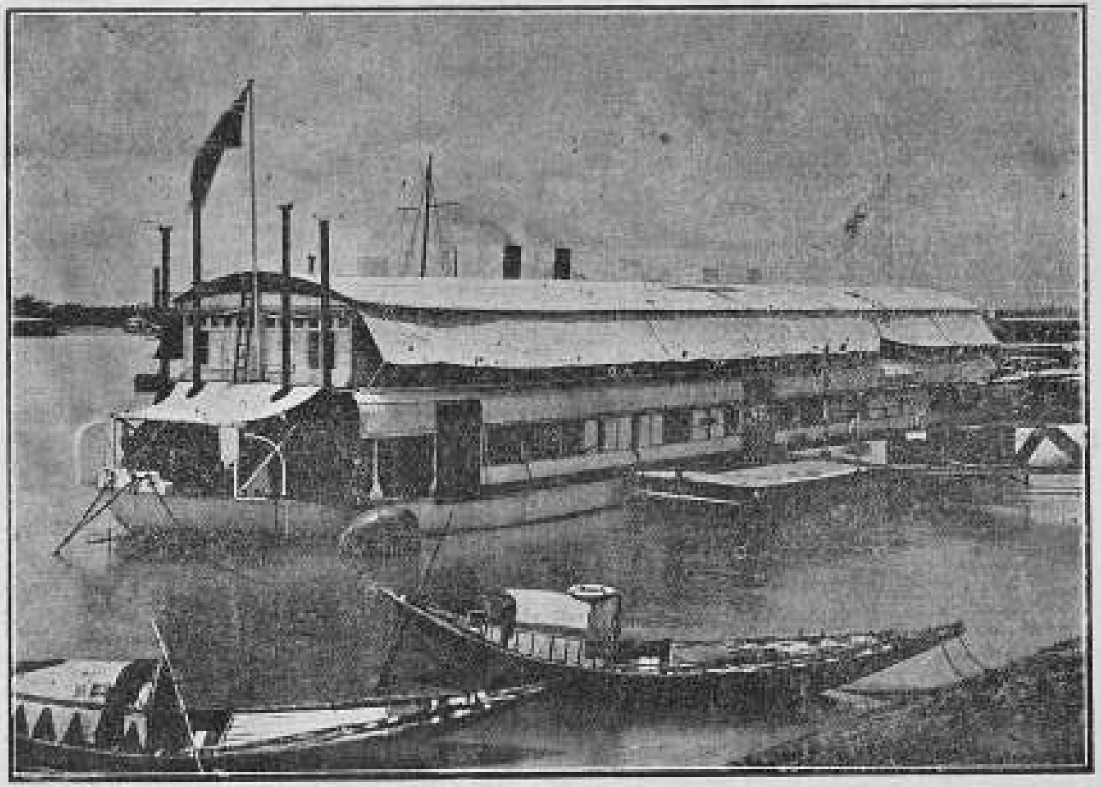
I understand that you are to-morrow to perform the ceremony of naming the Floating Hospital, calling it the *Bengali*. I should be greatly obliged if you would take the opportunity to give my most grateful thanks on behalf of the King-Emperor to Bengal for their most useful gift of an Ambulance Corps. I warmly congratulate the organisers on the successful outcome of their efforts, and wish the *Bengali* and her staff all success in their work of mercy.

After thanking the organisers and Sir Pardey Lukis, H. E. the Governor pointed out why the original proposals were rejected and how the present form was due to H. E. the Viceroy, who was convinced of the necessity for such a hospital flat after his return from the Persian Gulf. Continuing, His Excellency said :—

Whatever ups and downs there may be in this way, whatever be its results—though we believe there can be but one result, however much of honour it may bring to the Empire, however much of sorrow it may bring to individual subjects of the King-Emperor— it has already brought above one good thing, and that as days go by it will be made even more clear. It has brought England and India into closer touch. Your people and my people have fought together in the same battles; and the glory of those battles will be shared for all time alike by Indians and by Englishmen. Indians and Englishmen are together mourning and will mourn the loss of friends and relations whose blood has mingled in their death. There are things—there always must be things—on which Indians and Englishmen will not see eye to eye. We have all of us been at times—we shall continue at times to be—inclined to lay too much stress on these things; it is a gain—a great gain—that from now forwards much will remind us that we sympathise each with the other.

His Excellency then exhorted the young men of Bengal on their loyalty and patriotism and concluded :—

Now, gentlemen, I have very great pleasure in calling this hospital flat by the name which you all love and which I have during the last three years also learned to love.—*Bengali.*



THE BENGAL FLOATING HOSPITAL.

It is extremely regrettable that the *Bengalee* foundered on the 17th May. But Bengal is not disheartened and the enthusiasm for volunteering help has in no way abated since the mishap.

JOSEPH L. LEYSSEN: THE BELGIAN BOY SCOUT.

SIR ROBERT BADEN-POWELL.

The Founder of the Boy Scout Movement.

What this heroic Belgian Boy Scout, Joseph Luis Leyssen, has been promoted and decorated for will take a lot of beating. Single handed he is reported to have captured near Liege two German engineers, one Uhlan and two spies, disguised as priests. He is also said to have fought in five actions firing 500 shots with his automatic pistol and has made daring bicycle rides with despatches.—*Illustrated London News.*

NAIK DARWAN SING NEGI, LEADING ROUND THE TRAVERSES AT FESTUBERT AND THEREBY WINNING THE VICTORIA CROSS.

"The Illustrated London News"—Great War Deeds.

P. 206c.]

NAIK DARWAN SINGH NEGI.
THE HAVALDAR WITH THE V. C. ON HIS BREAST.

INDIANS AND THE VICTORIA CROSS

The Victoria Cross is an Order of Merit for conspicuous valour awarded to members of the British Army and Navy. The Order was instituted in 1856 and the Cross carries with it a pension of £10 a year to non-commissioned officers and men with an extra £5 for every bar. For the first time in the history of British India, Indian soldiers of mark have been awarded this distinction in accordance with the memorable boon of H. M. King George on the occasion of the Delhi Durbar in 1911. His Majesty's message on the subject runs:—"Furthermore His Imperial Majesty has been graciously pleased to ordain that from henceforth the loyal native officers, men and Reservists of his Indian Army shall be eligible for the grant of the Victoria Cross, etc." Accordingly in the present war, four Indian soldiers have already won the Victoria Cross: Ganga Singh, Khudadad Khan, Darwan Singh Negi and rifleman Gobar Singh Negi. The last hero, it is sad to think, did not live to receive the reward of his valour. Now of the four Victoria Crosses awarded to Indian soldiers, three have been won by Rajputs, who have thus vindicated their traditional chivalry. Of these three two belong to the heroic Rajput hillmen who form the 39th Garhwal Rifles. The ancestors of the present race of Garhwalis like those of the Gurkhas, emigrated from Rajputana and settled in Garhwal on the borders of Tibet seven hundred years ago. The Garhwali bears a close resemblance to the Gurkha with the exception of the curls, and yields to none in courage and physical endurance. Dressed in a home-spun woollen blanket, with strong bare legs and arms, his curly black locks often touching his shoulders, and a non-descript cap stuck jauntingly on one side surmounting the whole, the untamed recruit, says Colonel Roberts in the London *Field*, is a most picturesque figure.

Of the three Indian V.C's, Havildar Darwan Singh returned from the front and reached Bombay on the 18th February. He reached Kolidwar, Garhwal, on the 27th of February and was welcomed with great enthusiasm by the Garhwal public. The wounds of the hero have all healed up and he is still a young man of thirty-four. We understand that the Garhwal Sabha has opened a Fund to be utilised for a perpetual memorial of the hero.

The story of how Naik (now Havaldar) Darwan Sing Negi, of the 1st Battalion, 39th Garhwal Rifles, won his Victoria Cross on the night of 23rd-24th November, 1914, will long be remembered, writes Lt.-Col. M. B. Roberts, who has retired from the 39th Garhwal Rifles. The two Battalions of the Regiment were marching to billets on 23rd November for a well-earned rest after some 25 days of continuous duty in the trenches when they were suddenly recalled to another part of the firing line, where the Germans had occupied a certain portion of our trenches, and repeated efforts had failed to drive them out of this trench. The line of trenches had to be taken at all costs. The attack was made by the 1st Battalion with the 2nd Battalion in support, and it was at first led by a gallant little party of two British officers and some Afridis, well supplied with bombs, who cleared the way for the head of the attacking Double Company.

Then Naik Darwan Sing went ahead of his section leading a bayonet charge from traverse to traverse. Three times he was wounded by bombs thrown at him on these exposed traverses, but, nothing daunted, he led on till at 4 a.m. on 24th the whole length of some 300 yards of trench was once again in our hands. A great many Germans were killed and 105 were taken prisoners, while two machine guns, a trench mortar and many rifles and other equipments were captured. The Report adds that Naik Darwan Sing Negi was awarded the V. C. "for great gallantry on the night of November 23 to 24 near Festubert in France when the regiment was engaged in retaking and clearing the enemy out of our trenches, and although wounded in two places in the head and also in the arms, being one of the first to push round each successive traverse, in the face of severe fire from bombs and rifles at the closest range."

Luckily Naik Darwan Sing's wounds did not prove to be severe and he merely had them dressed daily without ever being admitted into hospital, for on 5th December (eleven days after the action) he was brought before His Majesty the King-Emperor, who most graciously presented the coveted Cross with his own hands. It was with reference to this incident that H. E. the Viceroy said: "It has also been a source of great pride to us all, that in accordance with the boon announced at the King-Emperor's Durbar, two Victoria Crosses have already been awarded to brave Indian soldiers, this much-coveted decoration having in one case been bestowed by the hand of the King Emperor himself."

The British Press on the Indian Troops

"I look to all my Indian soldiers to uphold the Izzat of the British Raj against an aggressive and relentless enemy. I know with what readiness my brave loyal Indian soldiers are prepared to fulfil this sacred trust shoulder to shoulder with their comrades from all parts of the Empire. Rest assured that you will always be in my thoughts and prayers. I bid you go forward and add fresh lustre to the glorious achievements and noble traditions of courage and chivalry of my Indian Army whose honour and fame is in your hands."—*His Majesty's greeting to the Indian Troops in France.*

The British Press voiced the universal feeling of pride and joy at the arrival of the Indian troops to share in fighting for the Empire. We give the comments of a few among the many:—

The Times said:—"No episode in this extraordinary war is more remarkable or inspiring in the presence of Indian troops on the Continent. France will be equally proud of the men who joyously came to fight on her behalf as well as on ours. It will be our part when we have settled our affair with Germany to see to it that as the years pass India takes a more ample place in the councils of the Empire."

The *Daily Telegraph* asked:—"Can we say anything in the history of our Empire quite equals the spectacle of the coming of the Indian troops to France? They are not on French soil at the behest of any Government but because they desired it with all their hearts. If ever Englishmen had reason to be proud of their nation, it is to-day when the willing soldiers of the Indian Empire have been brought to fight in our quarrel across two thousand miles of sea."

The *Morning Post* welcomed the arrival of the Indians and recommended them to the Allies, who would find them good soldiers and true gentlemen. The paper added:—"The Indians would have felt insulted and alienated if our Government had refused their assistance so loyally and urgently offered."

The Daily Graphic:—"Generous and loyal offers have come from the people as well as from the Princes of India. . . . It is hardly necessary to add that the acceptance of the loyal offers of service now coming from all parts of India will have a most important effect upon the permanent attitude of the Indian peoples to the British *Raj*. Nothing brings men's hearts so close together as comradeship in arms. Englishmen and Indians have for generations fought side by side in Asia with mutual esteem and respect; but a special thrill of satisfaction will run through the whole of India if we show without delay that we are also glad to accept Indian help when war comes near to our own homes."

The Pall Mall Gazette:—"The rising of India to claim her honourable place in the battle-front of all the Britains, the pouring of her troops across the seas, the opening of her purse, the eager service of her Princes, the surging acclamation of her common faith and loyalty, compose a spectacle so moving and so wonderful that silent contemplation becomes easier than praise, or even gratitude."

The Star:—"The response of the Self-governing Dominions to the call of the motherland we expected, but the reply of India surpasses all our hopes."

The Daily Chronicle:—"We are sure that the highly-trained and splendidly-disciplined Indian troops will not only display a bravery in action equal to that of any Europeans, but give the civilised world a much better example of civilised and humane conduct than the Germans have done."

The Westminster Gazette:—"The reception of the Viceroy's message, in which there is a touch of the Homeric, will assure the people of India of the pride and pleasure with which their co-operation is welcomed in their country. Englishmen have not been slow to admit the imperfections of their Government, and they are aware from long and intimate experience of the difficulties of their task. But the sound core of justice and equity and disinterestedness, which has carried them through their trials in India, still stands them in good stead, and we may be sure that it is not for nothing that the Indian people rally to them at the moment when disaffection might have found its opportunity. The whole country will join in the stirring message in which the King has acknowledged 'the prodigal offers of their lives and their resources in the cause of the realm' made by the Indian people."

The Strategy of the Great European War

BY DR. FITZGERALD LEE, M.A., F.R.G.S.

WE are all interested in the Great War now raging in Europe. We follow the course of events with the greatest attention: we eagerly grasp each crumb of information which is allowed to drop to us from the official table: we wish, we hope and we fear. And in thinking, deeply and seriously, over the events about which we are informed from day-to-day, some of us are, from one reason or another, in a position to draw conclusions which, though perhaps not accurate in every detail, enable us to follow with an intelligent interest the movements of the masses of men in the theatre of war, as well as the probable causes of these movements, and their results.

These movements, like the moves of the pieces on a chess-board, are directed by picked men of the highest intellect and greatest experience in military matters; they follow fixed and established rules founded on the experience of centuries; and these rules form the basis of what is called the science of *strategy*.

The science of strategy, though practised for more than twenty centuries, has been only comparatively recently placed among other sciences; and its first exponent was General Jomini, an officer who first served under the great Emperor Napoleon, and afterwards in the Russian Army. It would be difficult to give a clearer definition of strategy than that given by Jomini. He says: *Strategy is the art of properly directing masses upon the theatre of War either for defence or invasion.* But since his time, another great authority has arisen in the field of strategy, namely, Clausewitz; who is called by some of his admirers the "Shakespeare of strategy." He gives a very broad definition of strategy. He says: "Strategy is the theory of the use of combats for the object of the War.". The latest great authority on the science is, of course, Von Moltke.. He says that "strategy is the application of sound common sense to the conduct of War." This does not help us much; but that is Von Moltke's way. The great "silent one" was like a great K. C., whose services have been retained for one particular party, not for mankind. Of our English authorities on the subject, the two best are Hamley and Henderson; and what the latter has to say about strategy is worth reproducing. He says:

> The exact meaning of the word *strategy* is as generally misunderstood as the study of the art it describes is generally neglected. By civilians it is continually confounded with *tactics*, and it would seem that even soldiers are not always quite clear as to the essential distinction between the two main branches of their profession. Yet such confusion is not due to the want of definition. Almost every military writer of repute has tried his hand at it, and the only embarrassment is to choose the best. The last perhaps will serve our purpose as well as any other. Strategy, according to the official text-book of the British infantry, is the art of bringing the enemy to battle, while tactics are the methods by which a commander seeks to overwhelm him when battle is joined. It will thus be seen that strategy leads up to the actual fighting—that is, to the tactical decision but that while the two armies are seeking to destroy each other it remains in abeyance to spring once more into operation as soon as the issue is decided. It will also be observed that the end of strategy is the pitched battle; and it is hardly necessary to point out that the encounter at which the stategist aims is one in which every possible advantage of numbers, ground, supplies, and moral shall be secured to himself, and which shall end in his enemy's annihilation.

Hamley agrees with Henderson, though he does not elaborate his definition so much. He says: "The theatre of War is the province of Strategy; the field of battle is the province of Tactics."

Now although Tactics, that is, the actual use of troops or ships in battle, concerns only the soldier or sailor, strategy concerns civilians to a very considerable degree, as it is largely influenced by national policy. Clausewitz says:

> Strategy fixes the point where, the time when, and the numerical force with which, the battle is to be fought. By this triple determination strategy has, therefore, a very essential influence on the battle. If tactics has fought the battle, if the result be over, let it be victory or defeat, strategy makes such use of it as can be made in accordance with the great object of the War.

The civilian declares war: he says where it is to be fought: when it is to begin; and he settles the strength of the force employed. But there he should stop; and if any civilians attempt to *control* the strategy after the first shot is fired or the frontier crossed, the teachings of history prove that this spells defeat and ruin. For the greatest curse in war itself, whether that war be a "small" one or a great one, is civilian interference. Those who know the true history of Khoord Kabul, Chilianwala and Maiwand will agree with this.

"War," says Clausewitz, "is an act of violence which in its application knows no bounds. This violence arms itself with the inventions of art and science in order to contend against violence. Self-imposed restrictions, *almost imperceptible and hardly worth mentioning, termed International Law*, accompany it without impairing its power to any extent." But in times like this International Law is no protection except to the strong; and the only Laws which Great Powers recognise as binding are those of force and expediency. The only questions which the practical statesmen of Germany ever ask themselves are: Are we strong enough to do this? and, what will we gain by doing it?

The best strategy is to be as strong as possible at the decisive point. "This," says Clausewitz, "is the first great principle of strategy, as well suited for Greeks or Persians, for Englishmen or Mahrattas, as for French or Germans."

Therefore it is a fundamental error too often made in English policy to attempt, for the sake of false economy, to wage a war with insufficient means. Even a certain Man of Peace, twenty centuries ago, was of the same opinion. He said:

> What King, going out to make war against another King, sitteth not down first, and consulteth whether he be able with ten thousand to meet him that cometh against him with twenty thousand? If not, while the other is yet a great way off, he sendeth an ambassage, and desireth conditions of peace.

Bearing these things in mind, we see what a heavy burden of guilt rests on our politicians of both parties in the past. How often they have ordered our Generals to make bricks without straw; thus rendering effective strategy impossible; lengthening out the war and causing a great amount of unnecessary bloodshed and loss of human life.

"As strong as possible at the decisive point." The General should think of this and nothing else. We see how that grand and experienced soldier, Kitchener, is strictly acting up to this principle. "Give me men!" he says "More men, and still more men!" is his cry. No English Minister of War ever said this before. And we should all hope and pray that until some retired Colonel is made Manager of the Bank of England, no civilian retired from business should ever again be made Manager of the British Imperial Army. "The decisive point." Where is this point? It is that point where the enemy's main force is. That is the point against which we should concentrate the whole mass of our available strength. We may concentrate against, attack, and capture, other points; but this is not strategy; it is only waste of energy. Even if we capture the capital city of the enemy's country, this may prove of but very little advantage to us, so long as the enemy's main Army still holds the field unbroken. And this is one of the reasons why the German Army of the North, last August, did not attack Paris. There is no doubt the Germans were under the impression that the main body of the French Army would fall back into Paris and try to defend it to the last. But the French have a homely proverb which says, *chat échaudé craint l'eau froide*—a cat who has been scalded is afraid of even cold water; and they had not forgotten Bazaine in Metz, and MacMahon in Sedan. Therefore we were able to look on, not only with calmness and confidence, but even with approval and applause, when the magnificent strategists at the head of the Allied Forces sacrificed unimportant points and issues, in order to keep in hand the requisite superiority at the decisive point. For sacrifices at minor points and of minor issues these *must* be, if anything like superiority at the decisive point is to be secured.

The most terrible tragedy in the past history of war—Moscow, 1812—tells of overwhelming victory won by sacrifices. When Kutusoff fell back from Vilna to Smolensk, and from Smolensk to Borodino, Russian writers (Tol-

stoi, *War and Peace*,) tell us there were Russians, even some in high position, who became so impatient on account of the sound strategy of the cunning old General, constantly falling back, that at last he was induced, much against his own inclination and better judgment, to stand and fight at Borodino, where he lost nearly a third of his army. But already by that time Napoleon had lost the campaign.

We now come to those principles which govern the movements of an army when its commander is acting according to the sound and established principles of strategy. When a man has grasped these and understands them, he will find the study of the events of any war, and especially of the Great European War, by far the most interesting study he can take up. Although at first sight these principles may seem difficult and complicated, yet they are nothing of the sort. They are easy and clear; not at all so complicated as the principles of Chess or Bridge. "But if this is so," some will say, "why does the practice of strategical principles make such a demand on the intellectual powers of a man?" Von Moltke supplies the answer—*Im Kriege ist alles einfach, aber das Einfache ist schwer;* in War everything is simple, but it is the simple which is difficult. Besides, broad general principles, no matter how sound, are subject to varying influences and disturbing conditions, some of which it is impossible to foresee, but all of which must be taken into account and dealt with by the commander.

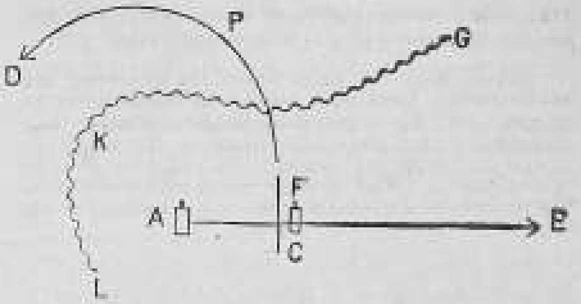
Now all strategic manœuvres, or movements of armies, may be classed under one or more of five principles. We shall take these in turn.

I. The first is when a commander, instead of attacking, or threatening to attack the enemy's army, attacks or threatens the enemy's line of communications.

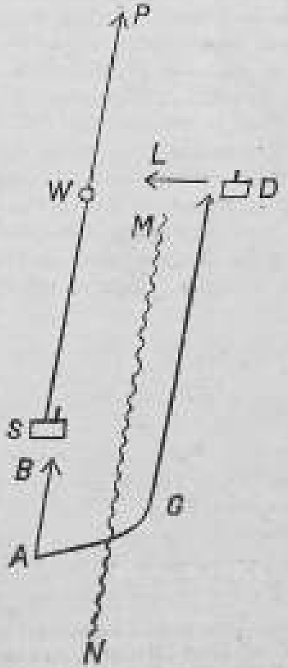
The "line of communications" means all the roads, railways, waterways, or any other means of communication, which keep up the connection between the army and its base, also between the several portions of the same army. By the *base* or *base of operations*, of an army, is meant that place, or portion of country, from whence it draws its supplies while carrying out the operations. From the base the army obtains its reinforcements and supplies; starts from it when acting on the offensive; retreats to it when necessary, and is supported by it when it takes up a position to act on the defensive.

A few examples will help to explain this principle:—

Marengo, 1800. A is the Austrian Army, and the line AB, the Austrian line of communications.

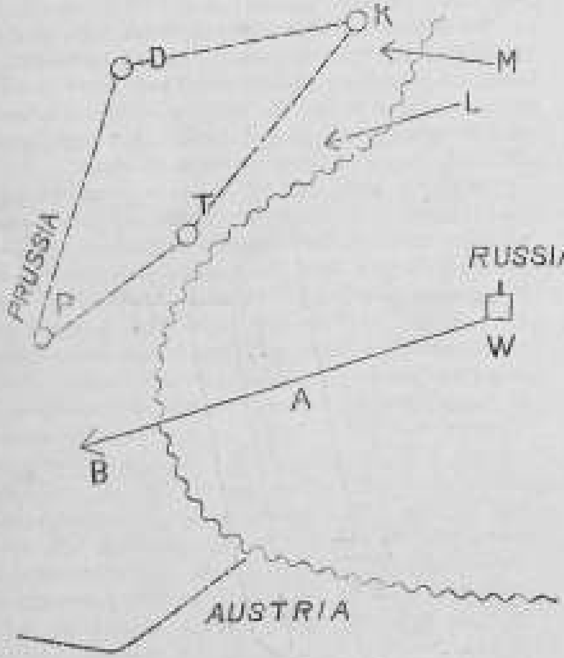


F is the French Army, having moved into the position at C; its line of communication being DPC, over the Alps, which are represented by the wavy line GKL. The Austrian general, Mélas, expected that Napoleon would attack him from the direction K. To confirm Mélas in this false impression, Napoleon had placed a small body of 5,000 men (under Thureau) at K. Napoleon had cut the Austrian line of communications at C; Mélas had to fight to regain them; he lost the battle and the campaign.



Winchester, 1862. Banks, the Federal General, was at Strasburg, S, facing south, and strongly intrenched. His line of communications

was through Winchester, W, and back to the Potomac river, P. He was awaiting attack by Jackson, the Confederate General, from the south, and along the only road, AB, in these parts. The wavy line MN represents the Massanutton mountains, impassable except at AC, held by Jackson. Leaving a small but energetic body of cavalry at B, in front of Banks to keep him amused, Jackson threw all the rest of his force across the mountains, by the way AC; wiped out a Federal Force at Front Royal, D; and then moved towards W, Winchester, at L. By this time Banks was hurrying back along the line SWP, and would have been completely wiped out only for bad staff work on the part of Jackson's staff and want of discipline in the Confederate cavalry. But he completely defeated Banks next day. Jackson had struck at the Federal line of communications. The next example will prove interesting in connection with the present War.

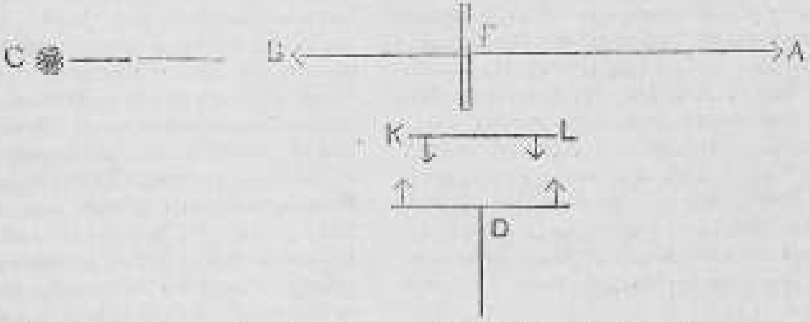


The letters K, D, P, T, in this rough sketch, represent the four strong fortresses, Konigsberg, Danzig, Posen, Thorn and forming the celebrated *Quadrilateral* of East Prussia. The wavy line represents the frontiers of Poland. W. is for Warsaw, the military centre of this part of Russia.

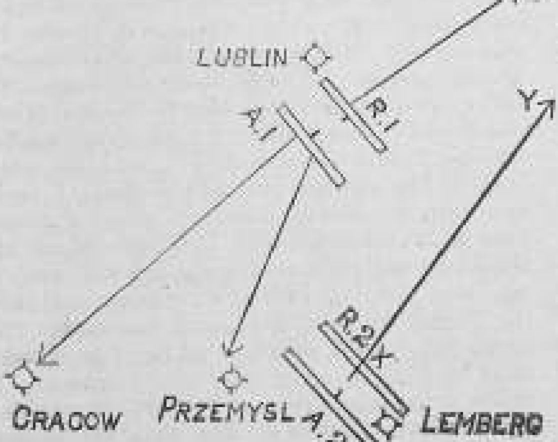
Now the German strategists had settled, to their own satisfaction, that if Russia could ever summon up enough courage to invade Prussia, she would move from the line of the Vistula centre Warsaw, along the line AB. This, they argued, was all the more likely, because such a move would separate the Prussian forces from the Austrians in this quarter, and prevent their concentration. If Russia had been foolish enough to do this, and nothing else, her line of communications would have been at once attacked and broken by a dash of the Prussian forces out from the quadrilateral. Sweeping along by both banks of the Vistula, these forces would have made short work of the Polish capital. The Kaiser would have held gala banquet in the best hotel, while his officers were turning the other hotels into piggeries and privies. His Uhlans would have stabled their horses in the churches of Warsaw, and the bands would play "Deutschland, Deutschland, ueber alles!" (Germany above everybody and everything!) Projecting his mind into futurity, the Kaiser saw Poland already in the talons of the Prussian Eagle. But, unfortunately for him, the pleasant vision did not materialise. The "stupid" Slav did not walk into the trap. On the contrary, the Russians did the very thing which the German chief staff never for a moment gave them the credit of even thinking of doing. And this is, instead of sacrificing themselves and their line of communications, to make a German holiday, they cut right into the quadrilateral, along the lines M and L; and, before Germany thought that they had even time to mobilise, they had cut away Konigsberg from the rest of the quadrilateral. The hay on the sacred property of the Prussian Junker—the most offensive and truculent specimens of the breed came from East Prussia—was feeding Cossack ponies; the potato-spirit, *schnapps*, which even the Bismarck estates find profitable, proved comforting and refreshing to the way-worn son of the steppes, who dutifully obeyed the Imperial *ukase* concerning *vodka*, but who, at the same time and with all his faults, can never be accused of being a bigotted teetotaller. *Die Beleidigung!* (The insult!) "Blood, Iago, blood!" And the forces which were hourly expecting to move to the *south-east* were rushed in the greatest haste to the *north-east*. The Russians suffered defeat, and old Samsonoff fell. When I say "old," I do not mean the word in its general acceptation, meaning years. He was only fifty-

five. Samsonoff had been a cavalry officer all his life; and, ten years ago last June, he, with 8,000 mounted troops, held off a victorious Japanese Army of 60,000 men, from a defeated Russian force (Stakelberg); so that General Oku spent twenty-three days (after the battle of Telissu) in covering thirty-eight miles! And, judging by the accounts which have leaked out since the battle in East Prussia, Samsonoff did not go into the shades this time without a goodly number of the enemy to keep him company.

II. I shall now proceed to the second strategical principle; what is called, "Compelling the enemy to form front to flank." And, in order that this technical expression may be better understood, I shall give a rough little diagram with it:—



A Red Force is advancing from its base A, in the direction AB; its object being to attack and capture C, an important railway junction and arsenal belonging to the Blue enemy. The Red Force has got as far as F. But now a Blue Force comes along, and places itself at D; that is, on the flank of the Red columns marching towards C. Now if the Red Force keeps on moving towards C, it will be laying bare its line of communications to an attack from D. So to meet this threatened attack, Red wheels to the left and



forms line at KL, facing the threatening Blue Force. This is now expressed by saying that Blue has compelled Red to form front to flank.

We are now, I hope, far enough advanced to understand and appreciate a very interesting series of strategic manœuvres which were carried out towards the end of August by the Austrian and Russian armies in Poland. A rough figure will help to make these movements clear.

Austria's first line of defence is an artificial one; namely, the line of strong places from Cracow on the west to Lemberg on the east; passing through Tarnow and Yaroslaw, and backed up by the strong position of Przemysl behind the centre. From different parts of this line as base, two Austrian armies, composed of six Army Corps and five Cavalry Divisions, invaded Russia. Both of these armies moved towards the north-east. That on the left, which for convenience sake I shall call A1, starting from Cracow and Przemysl, consisted of four army corps, and its objective was Lublin. This is a most important strategic point, as it is the converging point of four railways; and, if the Austrians had succeeded in taking it, they would be then in a very favourable position to attack the strongly intrenched camp of Ivangorod, and strike at the capital, Warsaw, from the south and south-east, while the Germans attacked the same place from the north-west and west. (This idea can be easily followed on any map.) Now this was very sound strategy, so far; and there is no doubt that it was "made in Germany," and owed its origin to Berlin. The Austrian army on the right, A2, consisted of two army corps; and it was to move from Lemberg, as a sort of right flank guard to A1. The Aus-

trians knew well that they would be opposed by Russian forces; and because Lublin was such an important place, they naturally thought that, of any armies moving against them, the greater would be certainly that detailed for the defence of this place. But, on the other side, the Russians were moving two armies towards the Austrian frontier. I have marked these R1 and R2, with lines of communications to Z and Y, respectively. Soundly and correctly the Russian staff decided that *the turning of the Austrian first line of defence was a far more important strategic objective than the protection of Lublin.* And this is why they made their second army, R2, far stronger than R1. And now we meet a strange and interesting situation for which there is no parallel in the history of modern War. The Austrian Army, A1, defeated and drove back the Russian R1. But, before the Austrians had begun their attack on R1, they heard that the Russian Army approaching Lemberg was by far larger than the force they (A1) had in front of them. So two Austrian Army Corps from (A1) were hurriedly despatched to join A2 for the protection of Lemberg. Here, after a desperate battle which lasted day and night for forty-eight hours, the Russians completely defeated the Austrians, killing and wounding nearly 20,000 of them, taking 60,000 prisoners and 200 guns. This happened in the first week of September.

Now here we have two victorious armies, standing almost side by side, with the line of communications of each threatened by the other. What should the commander of A1 have done? Well, if during his military career he had only condescended to read what an English strategist, Hamley, says on the subject, he would have had no hesitation as to the right course to be adopted. For, in Hamley's *Operations of War*, page 99, we find these words: "When two armies are manœuvring against each other's flanks or communications, that army whose flank or communications are most immediately threatened will abandon the initiative and conform to the movement of its adversary." The communications of A1 were more "immediately threatened" than those of R2; since the commander of the latter, fighting in his own country, could easily change his line of communications. The commander of A1 should not have hesitated a moment, but fall back at once. Yet, what do we find him doing? He swings round to his right, and strikes at the line of communications of the victorious Russian army. The Russian commander now "forms front to flank" with a portion of his force, and attacks Lemberg with the remainder. He captures Lemberg and beats the Austrian Army (A1) about the same time. The Austrian commander fell back on Cracow with a loss of 10,000 men in killed, wounded and prisoners.

Now there is a point to which I wish to call particular attention just here. I have been asked, and I have often read and heard the question: "What is the use of trying to learn War out of books?" I shall answer that question by quoting hard facts and weighty words. In the case before us, if the Austrian commander had only read and assimilated the words out of Hamley's book, which I have quoted, and acted up to them, he would have saved himself from defeat and the loss of 10,000 men. If Hamley had been endowed with the divine gift of prophecy, he could not have foretold with greater accuracy than he did forty years ago, what has just taken place in Poland, and what the commander of an army should do in such circumstances. With regard to the words, I shall take a quotation from Henderson's *Science of War.* He says:—

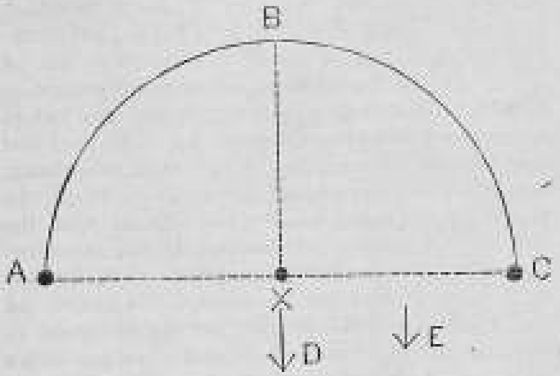
"Imagine an officer being asked some question as to Wellington or Napoleon, and being compelled to confess that he knew nothing whatever of their achievements or of the methods by which they had won so many victories. Could a man who thus admitted that he despised the experience and the teaching of the greatest and most successful masters of his profession by any conceivable stretch of courtesy be rightly called a professional soldier? If so, then a doctrine is applied to the profession of arms that is repudiated by every other profession, by every trade, by every sport, in the wide world. Is it possible to hold any other opinion than this extraordinary doctrine is either *a most impudent excuse for idleness, or an abject admission that the more intellectual branch of the art military is utterly beyond the capacity of the ordinary soldier?*"

III. The strategic principle to which I shall now turn is called "Interior *versus* exterior lines." It is thus defined: That force of which the component parts act from a common centre outwards, keeping in touch as regards all its parts, every detaining part being able at all times to fall back on the centre, is said to *act on interior lines.*

The forces whose parts move from the circumference along the radii of a circle, towards the centre, in such a fashion that if any part be beaten back, it is not driven towards, but away from, the other part, are said to *act on interior lines.*

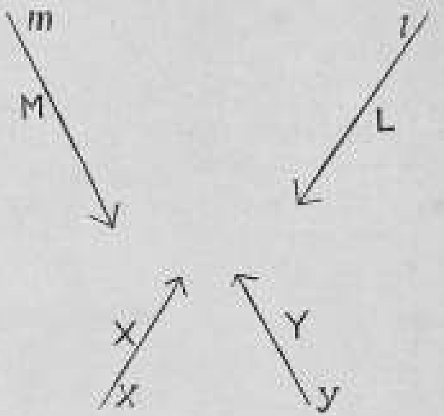
From the centre outwards is the idea of *interior lines*; from the circumference towards the centre, *exterior lines*. The former diverges, the latter converges.

A rough diagram or two will make this plainer,



A red force, X, occupies a position at the centre of a circle. The strength of this force is 60,000. A blue army, hostile to X, is split up into three blue forces, each 50,000 strong, at A, B and C. So the Red Army is 60,000, against a Blue Army of 150,000. The figure is a semi-circle, so that the distances AX, BX and CX are all equal. Now if Red, at X, is foolish enough to direct his attack against B, not only does he gain no advantage, but A and C can be concentrated at X by the time he arrives at B. Red has now lost his line of communications, and is caught between the hammer and the anvil. But if X moves against C, neither A nor B can get up to assist C in time, since the distances AC, BC are greater than XC. Of course they *could* concentrate at X; but it is far more likely that B should hasten to the assistance of C, and get there too late. Again, X can afford to put 10,000 men to threaten B's advance, and still meet C on equal terms. X's line of communications is in the direction DE. In this little example, X is on *interior* lines, while A, B and C are on *exterior* lines. It must be remembered that when forces are acting on exterior lines, the directions of their respective lines of communications are divergent; so that the more the forces are driven back, the wider they become separated.

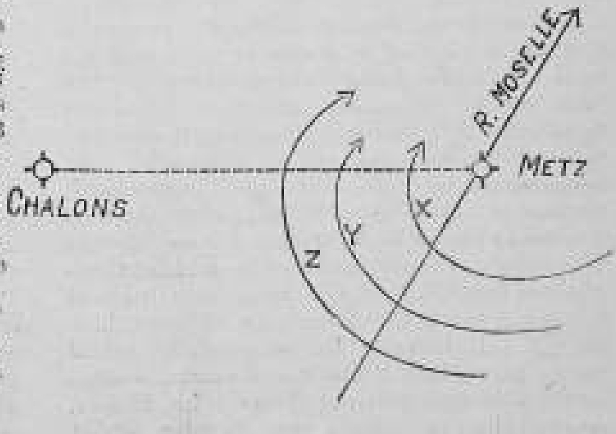
Another case of "interior *versus* exterior lines" is when the two hostile armies are *both* divided into two or more component parts, and in which each part is acting from divergent bases.



Two portions of a Red Army, X and Y, are acting from divergent bases, x and y (lower ends of the column.) Opposing these, there are two portions of a Blue Army, M and L, as in the figure. As compared with Blue, Red is on interior lines, because he can more quickly unite his forces than Blue can; and, once united, he can fall on either of the separated portions of the Blue Army before the other can come to its assistance. In this case, the Red Army is said to be acting on "double" interior lines; and an excellent example of this strategic manœuvre is afforded by the Russian army during the middle of October in the vicinity of Lodz.

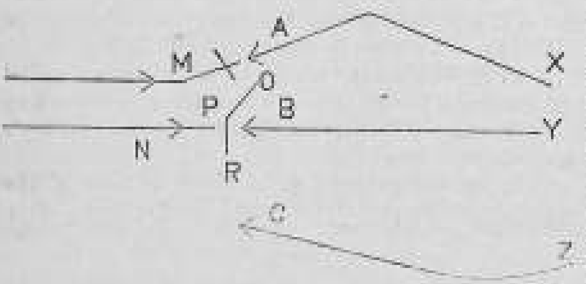
IV. The next principle is what is called "strategic penetration," which means penetrating between the separated parts of the enemy's strategic front.

In the campaign of 1914, there is none of the five strategic principles which has been so often



attempted, east and west, with varying results, than this one of strategic penetration. Therefore as it seems to be a particularly favourite form of strategy, it would be well to bestow on it more than a passing glance. I shall first show in what respects it differs from "interior lines," and then point out its advantages and disadvantages, as a strategic manœuvre.

In the middle of August 1870, the French Army was divided into two main bodies; one, under Bazaine, at Metz; the other, under MacMahon, at Chalons. There was a direct line of communications between these two, as shown on the rough sketch (p. 287). From the 15th to the 18th of August, the Germans, crossing the Moselle above Metz, swept in between Bazaine and MacMahon; movements which I have represented on the sketch by X, Y, Z. Then they first turned against Bazaine, whom they defeated in the battle of Gravelotte, and shut up in Metz; where he afterwards surrendered with his army. A fortnight afterwards, they defeated and captured MacMahon's army at Sedan. Here the Germans had successfully carried out the principle of "strategic penetration." This is an example of a very simple case; but there are others that may not be quite so clear.



A Blue Army, moving westwards, against a Red Army, has been split up into three portions, A, B and C, in order to take advantage of the three roads, X, Y, Z, going in the required direction. By splitting up the force the ground will be got over sooner, and the distribution of supplies will be easier. The Red Army, MN, marches to fight Blue. Part of the force M is detailed to play with A, to keep A busy for the time being. The remainder of force M and the whole of force N now fall on B, at OPR and defeat him before C can come up to assist him. Here the Red Army has successfully carried out the principle of strategic penetration.

When the strategic front of an army is broken, the succeeding movements are generally carried out on the principle of interior *versus* exterior lines. Because that army which has broken through the strategic front of its opponent will occupy a central position with regard to the separated forces of the enemy. Its principal object will be to prevent these forces from combining again. For this purpose its commander usually employs what is called a "containing force."

V. The next and last strategic principle is called "the direct advance on the objective." This requires but little explanation. If the commander of a force has no opportunity of carrying into operation any of the other strategical principles, the only thing left for him is to employ this one. Some military authorities do not recognise this at all as a strategic manœuvre. But there is no form of strategy so common in the history of the British army. It has been employed by British Generals hundreds of times, especially in what are called "small wars," against semi-civilised or savage warriors; always with invariable and complete success.

Let us be manly enough and sporting enough, and also wise enough, not only to admire the German strategy in this Great War, but to learn something from it. I do not know whether it may be due to the childish fear of creating a panic, (among the Britishers of Mons, Courtrai, the Marne, the Oise, Flanders, Ypres and a thousand more), or to the stupid ostrich policy of refusing to see what is staring us in the face; but I cannot for the life of me understand why none of the amateur strategists employed by the London newspapers attempted to explain why our Expeditionary Force was permitted to cross over into France without any hindrance or molestation whatever. Germany was well supplied with every little item of information about the movement. Will anybody deny this? Not one. Germany could have, at least, interfered with —I do not say *prevented*—the passage of the transports carrying the troops. *One* German submarine would have been sufficient. (See Admiral Mahan's *Report on the Spanish American War.*) Yet Germany *did* not make the slightest move to interfere with the sending of our troops across to France. Why? Because the more men that went out of England, the fewer men would England have for home defence. This is German strategy of the highest school. It is almost incredibly bold and daring. But we may rest assured that there is at least one man in England who knows this, and is prepared for it. That man is KITCHENER.

[P. 288.

HEGEL.

Writing "The Phanomenologie" during the battle of Jena. October 14th, 1806.

Historians' History of the World.

FRIEDRICH NIETZSCHE.

The philosophic champion of the Superman and the eccentric advocate of Prussian Militarism.

HEINRICH VON TREITSCHKE.

For many years Germany's most popular University lecturer and England's most investerate enemy.

NIETZSCHE AND THE WAR

BY

THE HON. MR. A. G. CARDEW, I.C.S., C.S.I.,

Member, Executive Council, Madras.

THE tremendous struggle which is now being waged in Europe is drawing renewed attention to the writings of those men whose teachings have moulded the aspirations and opinions of the German people during the last 40 years and have produced that mental attitude, often described under the name of Pan-Germanism, which is the real, underlying cause of the war. Amongst the teachers who are responsible for the growth of German ambition and the formation of the deliberate intention to subdue and dominate the civilized world, stands out the sinister and eccentric figure of Nietzsche.

Friedrich Nietzsche, born in 1844, was the son of a Lutheran minister and came of a race of clergymen, a fact which seemed afterwards to give edge to his bitter dislike of Christianity. After a brilliant career at Leipsic, he was appointed at the age of 24 to the Professorship of Philology in the University of Basle and worked there for a period of over ten years. During part of this time, however, he served in a non-combatant capacity in the German army during the war of 1870-71 which ended in the defeat of the French and the foundation of the German Empire. Nietzsche resigned his Professorship in 1879, receiving a small pension and for the next ten years lived a solitary and wandering life, spending the winters in Nice, Venice or Genoa and the summers in the Black Forest or the Engadine. During these years he formulated and from time to time published those theories of life and philosophy which are now associated with his name. He gradually quarrelled with most of his friends, Wagner, Rohde, Paul, Ree, Heinze, Windisch, the rupture with Wagner producing so permanent an effect on Nietzsche that he could never afterwards tire of attacking the object of his earlier admiration. A brief love-affair with a young Russian girl in 1882 was terminated through Nietzsche's unreasonable egotism, and he continued to live a life of great isolation, solaced by the occasional society of his sister and by the sympathy of three or four faithful friends. His health was bad, and later he fell under the influence of nerve-destroying drugs, especially chloral. In January 1889, the malady of which symptoms had previously been evident, overwhelmed him and he had to be placed under restraint. He lived for another ten years, dying at Weimar on the 25th of August 1900, at the age of 56, but his real career ended at 45.

The one real piece of experience of life which Nietzsche enjoyed was the episode when as a young man of 26 he served in the German army and marched with the victorious Prussian troops across conquered France. He was then seized with the conviction of the all importance of brute force. Thenceforward, he became the philosophic exponent of the Bismarckian principle of "blood and iron" and developed the conception of the Superman, the stupendous being, free from all restraints of morals or religion who tramples on the stupid and slavish crowd around him in his victorious pursuit of the "Will to Power." This line of thought rapidly brought him up against the problem of Christianity which he proceeded to attack with characteristic violence. Christianity, he declared, is along with alcohol the great means of corrupting humanity. He denounced it as the religion of decadence, of pessimism, of nihilism, the negation of all reality, which commits the one unpardonable sin in that it is fatal to *life*. Christianity, he believes, is a base and ingenious plot hatched by the Semitic race to enslave the pure and noble Aryan. It is a scheme to unite the Chandalas, the Pariahs of the earth so that they may overpower the few great ones, the Supermen, the Immoralists, the Hyperboreans! The Christian conception of God is an emasculated, degraded, unreal "ruin of a God," profoundly inferior even to the proud Jehovah of the Jews. In the pursuit of this thesis of the importance of power, of the "Will to Power," Nietzsche strikes right and left. The famous names on the roll of humanity, Goethe and Schopenhauer almost alone excepted, are nothing to him. Plato and Socrates, Spinoza and Kant, Dante and Schiller, Rousseau and John Stuart Mill, Victor Hugo and Zola, come in turn under

the lash of his epigram. In his eyes democracy, socialism, modern science and the scientific spirit are mere forms of decadence. Everywhere he finds the same deep-laid conspiracy to suppress and keep down the true, free and noble, the Superman, the rightful inheritor of the world. In every case the Superman is, like Gulliver among the Lilliputians, a giant bound and tied down by pigmies.

These pernicious doctrines expressed in a style at once pungent and personal were well calculated to attract attention. During his lifetime Nietzsche received but scanty recognition and his letters are full of petulent complaints at the neglect with which he was treated. But no sooner was he dead than a school of disciples eager to do his memory honour and to disseminate his teaching sprang into existence. His works were translated into half the languages of Europe and his theories have attained a celebrity which is out of proportion either to their novelty or to their intrinsic value. To those uninfected by the poison of Prussian militarism, Nietzsche's attitude may appear so extravagant as to be unreal, but it can hardly be doubted that his teachings have had a great effect in Germany. They supplied a quasi-philosophic basis for the doctrine of the "mailed fist." The views that the strong must and should triumph over the weak, that ordinary morality represents "the slave virtues" which weaken and debase a nation, that those should keep who have the power and those should take who can, have been readily absorbed by the German people. For the last 25 years Nietasche's writings have exercised a subtle influence on the more thoughtful minds in Germany and have well-harmonised with the general trend of national aspiration in that country. The German Empire is itself the result of calculated and well-timed attacks first on Austria and then on France. The German race, which had for centuries been deprived of effectiveness by its sub-division into petty kingdoms and principalities, found itself united as the result of two successful wars. The material and moral benefits which followed confirmed the German people in the belief that in the words of Bernhardi "the end-all and be all of a State is Power." Nietzsche's doctrine of the Will to Power, his glorification of the Superman, thus harmonized exactly with the lessons which the German nation drew from its own experience. "Wherever we open the pages of history," says Bernhardi, "we find proofs of the fact that wars, begun at the right moment with manly resolution, have effected the happiest results, both politically and socially." Only the weaklings look with dismay on the sufferings caused by war. Men look at the final result. "God will see to it," says Treitschke, "that war always recurs as a drastic remedy for the human race."

It is probable that the part which Nietzsche and his theory of the Superman has played in producing the mental attitude of modern Germany is less important than that of more virile and systematic teachers such as Von Treitschke, Adolf Wagner, and Von Bernhardi, but Nietzsche himself must bear a part of the responsibility for the ruthless doctrines which have been converted into action by the Germans within the last three months. Events have proved that it was a mistake to regard the utterances of the Pan-Germans as a mere kind of eccentricity of the German mind. As Professor Morgan has well pointed out in a letter to the *Times* dated the 25th of August last the attitude of such men as Von Bernhardi and Clausewitz is so completely non-moral as to appear to us incredible. But in Germany these teachings seem to have been taken at their face value. It is perfectly clear that the German people themselves entirely endorse the action of their rulers. The deliberate preparation for an aggressive war directed against France, England and any other country which stood in the way of Germany's advance to world power is not merely supported by the opinions of a few Professors or by the theories of a half-mad philosopher such as Nietzsche, but has been adopted as the deliberate and reasoned policy of the German people. It is significant that Nietzsche, the philosophic champion of the Superman, died mad. We may hope that the punishment which is impending over the German people will help to restore them to a saner attitude towards life.

It is refreshing to meet a magazine, edited in India, above the ordinary literary level. Such is the "Indian Review." The subjects treated are dealt with by writers specially competent to deal with them. It is a magazine every intelligent European should read.—*Simla News.*
The "Indian Review" contains also several new features which improve the monthly considerably.—*Times of India.*
The "Indian Review" is a monthly magazine of uncommon merit.—*Bombay Guardian.*

HEINRICH VON TREITSCHKE

BY PROF. S. J. CRAWFORD.

(OF THE MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.)

THE modern scientific historian is always warning us against over-emphasising the influence of the individual upon the development of nations and loves to direct our attention to the study of complex and intricate concatenations of forces amid which even the greatest man stands helpless, the creature of a past over which he has no control and the slave of a present which exercises irresistible moulding power upon his character and actions, but on whose marble surface his lifework leaves only the faintest impress. Without doubt there is considerable justification for this interpretation of history. In the past too much importance has been assigned to the individual, and we have been prone to forget that even the leaders of human thought and action have been in some sense the creation of their time. At the same time we may be pardoned, if we hesitate to accept this view of history stated in its most extreme form and to believe that even had Christ never been born into the world, another such as He would have come at the same time and founded a religion to all intents and purposes the same as Christianity, or that in the year of our Lord 1815, the battle of Waterloo would have been fought, even if Napoleon had not exercised the shaping force of his genius upon the events of the second half of the eighteenth century and the first decade of the nineteenth. At all events, it is difficult to conceive that modern Germany would have become what it is to-day but for the influence of men like the Great Elector, Frederick the Great, Clausewitz, Stein, Bismarck and Moltke; and we may well suspect that in the reaction against the 'hero-worship' of Carlyle and the school of history in which he was perhaps the most notable figure, we are liable to underestimate the value of the genius of the 'hero.'

If this view is correct, then I think we shall not be wrong in assigning a large share of the guilt of having brought about the present war to a group of German philosophers, politicians and political-theorists in which not the least name is that of Heinrich Von Treitschke, a man who was perhaps scarcely known to five hundred people in England even by name at the outbreak of the war, but regarded in Germany with feelings of reverence and admiration as the author of what may perhaps be termed, "The Prose Epic" of Imperial Germany—Treitschke's *Deutscher Geschichte.*

Born at Dresden in 1834, Heinrich Von Treitschke was the son of a Saxon General of Bohemian extraction, thus exemplifying well in his own person the truth of his dictum that the 'political genius of Germany has never lain among the unmixed Germanic races.'* Parenthetically it may be said that Germany is indebted in a very high degree to the depressed and 'barbarous' Slav, for whatever claims she may have to rank among the nations which have led the van in civilisation and culture. Bismarck is perhaps the only man of genius whom Germany has produced, who so far as we know was of unmixed German blood. The unadulterated Teuton has not many claims, *pace* Mr. Houston A. S. Chamberlain, to pride himself on having added anything very valuable to the content of world-civilisation; he has been a destroyer rather than a creator.

Treitschke was born into a Germany which lacked unity, it is true, but which was the home of idealism—a Germany inspired by the teaching of men like Fichte and Kant, Schiller and Goethe, Schleiermacher and the Romanticists—men in Goethe's phrase:

> "im Ganzen, Güten, Schönen
> Resolut zu leben."†

He died in a Germany dominated by the philosophy of Schopenhauer and Nietzsche, by the political Machiavellianism of the school of Bismarck and united under the sceptre of Wilhelm II. His boyhood was spent amid the ferment of the Forties, which culminated in the revolutionary

* Quoted by Houston A. S. Chamberlain: Die Grundlagen des XIX. Jahrhunderts, I. Bd. 485.

† Resolved to live wholly and to live for the good and for the beautiful.

movements of 1848; his young manhood saw the rise of Bismarck to power, the wars against Denmark, Austria and France, ending in the foundation of the German Empire. Though he was born a Saxon, all his sympathies were from the beginning with Prussia. The weakness, divisions and squabbles of the smaller German states and, above all, the utter want of unity filled his patriotic soul with feelings of distress and disgust. Like the hero of "Paradise Lost," which he admired greatly, he felt that 'to be weak is to be miserable, doing or suffering.' Hence we find him after five years spent as lecturer in history at Leipzig, and three years (1863-66) at Freiburg as professor of the same subject, removing successively to Kiel, Heidelberg and finally to Berlin, where he remained for twenty-two years until his death in 1896. Treitschke had now reached the summit of his ambition. His father had destined him for a career like his own in the service of Saxony; but the study of history filled him with admiration for leaders of the War of Liberation (1809-13), in which Saxony had played such an ignoble part. Men like Blücher and his co-adjutor Gneisenau, Scharnhorst and Stein, the refounder of Prussia, Fichte and Arndt, the Tyrtaeus of the War of Liberation and author of the song '*Was ist des Deutschen Vaterland?*'* filled his boyhood's imagination and were celebrated in some of his most eloquent writings as a man. The child was father of the man.

In some verses quoted by Professor Cramb, Treitschke describes the disaster which left him deaf for life—"the coming upon him of a fever, his slow recovery, and at last, his astonishment at the persistent sorrow on his mother's face, despite his recovery. He mentions his being taken out into the garden on an early summer's day, lying on a bench in the sun, seeing the bright skies for the first time after what seemed months and years. A singular feeling comes over him of a vast and unnatural silence. He sees the mounting lark; he hears no song. It is a silent universe. Terrified, the child rushes back into the house, and there he discovers the cause of the persistent sorrow on his mother's face. He is nearly stone deaf invariably and for ever.† It was of himself Treitschke was thinking and of his own blighted hopes of a career of arms and action, when he wrote of Heinrich von Kleist, the soldier poet and philosopher, "There are some who are doomed to pass their lives on broken wings because some malevolent chance has excluded them from that sphere in which alone they could accomplish the highest that is in them." Thrown back upon himself, he brooded over the history and destiny of Germany and gave the result of his studies to the world in the works on "The State," his "Politics," and his "History of Germany," but above all in his lectures at Leipzig, Freiburg, Kiel, Heidelberg and Berlin, where he exercised an incalculable influence on generation after generation of students and inspired them, and all Germany through them, with something of his own enthusiasm for German unity. His lectures in Heidelberg and in Berlin were crowded not merely with students, but with statesmen and soldiers who flocked to hear him talk like one inspired of Germany's past and present and of her divinely appointed destiny. For of Treitschke, above all others, is the saying true that 'history is past politics and politics is present history.' His was no antiquarian interest in the past for the sake of the past; for him the past was a storehouse from which he received guidance to direct the living present and point the way to still greater achievement in the future. Milton, in his "Paradise Lost," says that his aim is "to justify the ways of God to man; it might be said of Treitschke that his life-work was the justification of the ways of Bismarck to Germany, if not to the world. Though he has been dead for twenty years, he lives in the life of his students, who are to be found in every University, and one might almost say in every school in Germany, and in the writings of Bernhardi and Delbrück and the group of brilliant German publicists, whose work is to be found in the pages of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*.

It is impossible within a limited space to give anything like a complete account of his teaching, which is to be found in the works above-mentioned together with his '*Ausgewählte Schriften*,'* the *Deutsche Kaempfe*† and his most picturesque and powerfully written *Bilder Aus der Deutschen Geschichte*.‡ But probably for the student who wishes a clear account of the influence of his teaching or the present crisis, its kernel is to be found in his *Politik*, a selection from which has been translated by Mr. A. L. Gowans under the title "Selections from *Treitschke's Lectures on Politics*." Here we have in outline his conception of the scope and science of politics. The

* What is the German's Fatherland?

† Quoted by Cramb: *Germany and England*, p. 81.

* Selected Writings.

† German Battles.

‡ Pictures from German History.

dominating thought is that the 'State is power.' "The State is the people legally united as an independent power." "The State is the public power of offence and defence." "Power is the principle of the State, as faith is the principle of the Church and Love of the family."* "The State is no academy of arts; if it neglects its power in favour of the ideal strivings of mankind, it renounces its nature and goes to ruin. The renunciation of its own power is for the State in the most real sense the sin against the Holy Ghost; to attach itself closely to a foreign State out of sentimentalism, as we Germans have often done with the English, is in fact a deadly sin."† We are therefore doing Treitschke and his School no injustice when we describe their teaching as the "cult of power"; not power in the individual as in Nietzscheism, but power in the State, which is regarded by them as an abstraction transcending every other ideal. The individual must sacrifice himself for a higher community, of which he is a member; but the State is itself the highest in the external community of men, therefore the duty of self-elimination cannot affect it at all. The Christian duty of self-sacrifice has no existence whatever for the State, because there is nothing whatever beyond it in world-history; consequently it cannot sacrifice itself for anything higher. Self-sacrifice for a foreign nation is not only not moral, but it contradicts the idea of self-preservation, which is the highest thing for the State. Hence it follows, that we must distinguish between public and private morality . . . a whole series of these duties, which are obligatory on the individual, are not to be thought of in any case for the State.‡ Treitschke is here repeating in an almost bolder form principles which Machiavelli laid down for the guidance of a prince four centuries before him; only unfortunately for the Italian, as Treitschke says: "He tries to think as one of the ancients, and yet he cannot do it, because he has eaten of the tree of knowledge; because he is a Christian without knowing it, and without wishing it."§ Treitschke suffered from none of these limitations.

The ethics of the individual are therefore not binding on the State; nor since the State itself is the highest ideal can "it recognize an arbiter above itself; and consequently legal obligations must in the last resort be subject to its own judgment."* In other words the power of the State implies immunity from international law, for he admits of no barrier which will interfere with the power of the State. "If States conclude treaties with one another, their completeness as powers is to some extent restricted...... Every treaty is a voluntary limitation of the individual power, and all international treaties are written with the stipulation: *rebus sic stantibus*.† A State cannot possibly bind its will for the future in respect to another State. The State has no higher judge above it, and will therefore conclude all its treaties with that silent reservation."‡ From this it is clear that Treitschke's teaching is subversive of all the principles which govern the law of nations.

Nationalism is for Treitschke the highest good; and when he thinks of a nation he thinks only of Germany. It is Germany which must be supreme in power, the arbiter of her destinies, unconfined by any limitations imposed by the Law of Nations.

But we may ask, for what end is this supreme and unlimited power to be exercised? Treitschke's answer is 'for the protection and extension of culture.' But this, as Mr. E. Barker has acutely pointed out, raises difficulties, for if power is not an end in itself then the State ought to be defined as 'culture' and not 'power.' There then arises the question, what culture? Since there are different cultures each having a different value. Here we come to what is probably the most deeply rooted and most deceptive fallacy of all, the assumption that Germany alone possesses a 'culture' worth disseminating and that this form of civilisation is alone worthy to dominate the world. This domination can only be secured by war. "The great advances of mankind in civilisation can only be entirely realised, in face of the resistance of barbarism and unreason, by the sword." The spread of German culture therefore means aggression.

The first task of the State according to Treitschke is twofold; "Power is its aim in an external direction and the regulation of justice internally; its fundamental functions must, therefore, be the organisation of the army and the administration of law,"§ in order to protect and restrain the citizens. "The second essential function of the State is to make war." "Without war there would be no State at all." "And so war will last till the end of history as along as there is a plural

* Politics, page 12.
† Politics, page 14.
‡ Ibid, page 32.
§ Ibid, page 27.

* Ibid, page 33.
† While things remain as they are, i. e. page 15.
‡ Nietzsche and Treitschke, page 19.
§ Politics, page 21.

number of States." "The blind worshippers of perpetual peace commit the error of thought, that they isolate the State or dream of a world State,"* which, according to Treitschke, is an utterly irrational ideal. War far from being an evil is a heaven-sent gift. "One must say," he writes, in the most decided manner; "War is the only remedy for ailing nations." The moment the State calls; "myself and my existence are now at stake!" social self-seeking must fall back and every party-hate be silent. The individual must forget his own ego and feel himself a member of the whole; he must recognise what a nothing his life is in comparison with the general welfare. In that very point lies the loftiness of war, that the small man disappears entirely before the great thoughts of the State. In such days the "chaff is separated from the wheat." "Those who declaim this nonsense about universal peace do not understand the Aryan people."† We shall willingly, I think, concede to Treitschke that at all events they do not understand the German people which has displayed 'the loftiness of war' in its harrying of Belgium and the sack of Louvain.

But since the end of the State is power, a small State is an immoral State, for weakness is sin. "In small States there is developed that form of mind which judges the State by the taxes that it raises; which does not feel that, if the State may not press like an egg-shell, it cannot protect either, and that the moral benefits which we owe to the State are beyond price. It is because it begets this materialism that the small State has so pernicious an effect on the minds of its citizens."‡ A small State is therefore a ludicrous thing, an anachronism, and history shows the continuous growth of great States out of small States. "Few people realise to-day how ridiculous it is to-day that Belgium should feel itself the home of International Law. A State in an abnormal position must have an abnormal view of international law. Belgium is neutral; it is emasculated: it cannot produce a healthy international law." Here doubtless lies the justification of the infringement of Belgian neutrality by the *Kultur-Staat.*

Nor does the overgrown State fare any better at Treitschke's hand than the small State. Small States have no right to exist because of their weakness and its attendant defects; large States have a still worse influence—it is always of England that Treitschke thinks when he discusses the evils of the large State. "The large State is the greatest enemy of the culture-State." Treitschke forgets to be consistent when he thinks of England. 'England,' he says 'treads International Law beneath her feet; her overgrown sea-power destroys equilibrium at sea; she insists on a law of war at sea far more inhuman than a war on land."* England's real sin, however, lies in none of these things, but in the fact that she is the greatest obstacle to the realisation of Treitschke's ideal for Germany, the State as power incarnate, an ideal subversive as we have seen, of morality both private and public, an ideal opposed to all our conception† of international faith and destructive of all faith and confidence between nation and nation. Might is the only right and the sword is the only arbiter. "For questions of vital importance there is no impartial foreign power in existence. There can be no final international tribunal at all . . . To the end of history arms will maintain their rights; and in that very point lies the sacredness of war."† This is Treitschke's first and last word. The present war shows how thoroughly Germany is imbued with his teaching.

Treitschke speaks in one place with reference to Napoleon "of the unsuccessful effort to transform the many-sidedness of European life into the barren uniformity of a world-empire." Consistency, as we have seen, is not one of his virtues, for the victory of Germany can only have as its logical outcome that which it suits him to deprecate in the case of Napoleon. The old idealistic Germany of the past is gone and to-day Germany stands before us as a nation whose God is not the Saviour of the world, but the God of battles; whose ideal of culture is the destruction of everything that conflicts with her ideals of power; whose only law in international affairs is the arbitrament of the sword; as a nation which has renounced the ideal for the material and ridicules Kant's dream of universal peace as a sign of senile decay in Germany's greatest thinker and substituted for it the apotheosis of war. In this transformation one of the most powerful agents has been the cult of power inculcated with all the forces of his genius by Heinrich von Treitschke.

* Ibid, page 21-22.
† Politics, page 24.
‡ Ibid page 15.

* Quoted by Mr. Barker '*Nietzsche and Treitschke.*'
† Politics, page 16.

THE WAR OF THE WORLD IDEALS.*

There are certainly few men in the world of judgment unenfeebled by pacifist fanaticism who would deny that England was bound by treaty to defend the neutrality of Belgium and by an understanding almost as binding as a treaty to come to the aid of France if attacked. It is possible no doubt to quibble as to which of the three empires was ultimately responsible for the war. The one thing certain is that it was not the Republic. Even German historians, when the history now a-making comes to be written, will certainly admit that had Britain looked idly on at the violation of Belgium, she could never have held up her head again. For the moment it would seem that Germany professes to think herself monstrously illused by some sort of "treachery" on England's part and to favour her with a particularly bitter hatred. The truth is that England has failed to act up to Germany's freely expressed conception of her as a country lost to all sense of honour and guided solely by pusillanimous and shortsighted views of immediate self-interest. This was doubtless very disappointing.

Would England have done wisely to have stood systematically aloof from the rest of Europe and avoided all engagements or understandings that could possibly make it a point of honour for her to take part in a continental war? Many people in England still believe in this policy of "splendid isolation." I think they are doubly wrong, first because the policy was impossible; second because it would have been a betrayal of the ideals for which England stands and a renunciation of all that makes life worth living for English-speaking men and women throughout the world. The policy was impossible for a very simple reason, namely, that Germany was immovably determined to attack the British Empire when it suited her to do so—for neither the word "isolation" nor the idea would she have had the slightest respect, except in so far as it made Britain, when the time came an easier prey. Let any one read the late Professor Cramb's sympathetic exposition of the doctrines of Treitschke in his *Germany and England* or Bernhardi's popularisation of these doctrines in his *Germany and the Next War*, and he will cease to be under any illusion as to the possible co-existence on this planet of the British Empire and the German Empire inspired (as it unquestionably is) by Treitschke. Stay, there is probably one way in which the two might have got on together for a century or so. Britain might have entered into a filibustering compact with Germany to divide the world between them. She might have said "Leave me my Overseas Dominions and I will assist you in absorbing all the extra European possessions of the other European nations and in challenging the Monro doctrine in order to find another Germany in South America. Had we been *real politiker* in the Bismarckian sense we might have agreed to such an unholy alliance. Germany, as all world knows, did actually make overtures to the British Government which clearly pointed in this direction. But even if we had consented to a partition of the planet, it would only have postponed the ultimately inevitable clash, for a nation which believes aggressive war indispensable to its spiritual health, cannot possibly content itself in the long run with a divided world empire. Here then, we come upon the irreconcilable difference which lies at the root of this war of world ideals. Germany believes, or at least the statesmen, soldiers and professors who shape her policy believe, that she is by far the greatest and most gifted nation in history and that God has entrusted to her the solemn duty of ennobling the world by imposing on it by force of arms German culture and the beneficent German genius. Incidentally she wants outlets for her manufactures and for her surplus population, but the professors at any rate are probably quite sincere in thinking that what they chiefly desire to vindicate (at the cannon's mouth) is her intellectual and spiritual supremacy. This is no exaggeration, no caricature of the ideas dominant among the German ruling caste. They have not the slightest false modesty in putting forward their claim to bring, as it were, Nature's supermen. Bernhardi on the fifth page of his book says:—"We now claim our share in the dominion of this world after we have for centuries been paramount only in the realm of intellect." Again in another place:—The proud conviction forces itself upon us with irresistible power that a high, if not the highest, importance for the entire development of the human race is ascribable to this German people." Such quotations could be indefinitely multiplied, and it is impossible to say that their arrogance, however unamiable, is entirely unjustified by the facts. It is when this arrogance takes as its practical watchword Treitschke's famous phrase "World Dominion

* A communication received by the Viceroy from the India Office.

of Downfall," that it becomes an intolerable menace to all nations which do not relish the prospect of political, intellectual and spiritual vassalage to Germany. That is why England feels that in endeavouring to save France from political extinction she is fighting the battle of freedom all the world over. If she had been content to stand by and let Belgium and France be devoured into mouthfuls, does anyone doubt that she herself would have been the next mouthful? Germany enriched by huge indemnities and by the exploitation of the French Colonial Empire would have devoted the bulk of her spoils to building a navy which should deprive Britain of that freedom of the seas on which her very existence depends. And that done, can anyone imagine that she would leave unchallenged the hegemony of the United States in the western hemisphere? If she did, it would be a sad derogation from her ideal, for has not Treitschke said: "God will see to it that war always recurs as a drastic medicine for the human race." Having no one left to fight in Europe, Germany would be bound to seek antagonists in other continents, and the only question would be whether the mailed fist should fall first on the United States or on China and Japan.

At present writing it seems far from probable that in spite of England's intervention Germany should be able to work her will with France and tame Russia for an infinite time to come. But still, such a possible issue has to be faced. In that case England will certainly be the next victim and England gone, the Scandinavian kingdoms will assuredly go next. Moreover, the Atlantic Ocean will become a mere geographical expression, not a political fact and the United States will find their only hope of safety to lie in universal military service and the maintenance of a gigantic fleet. It is against this consummation that England is fighting. She is fighting for the small nations in a very real sense. She is fighting for one great nation which speaks her language and shares her free institutions. She is fighting for the heretical notion that perhaps Treitschke had not wholly fathomed the purposes of God and that possibly mankind are not fated to go on to the end of time slaughtering each other in millions and subjecting women and children to fiendish tortures and lingering death. In a word, from the German point of view, England is impiously opposing the beneficent imposition of the German ideal upon a blood-drenched but doubtless grateful planet.

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REHABILITATED.

[Germany (to her Professor): "What if we do not fulfil our promises—the whole world must now admiringly confess we are men of honour—we fulfil our threats."]

The Nation.

AUDIENCE.

[Prussianism: "And Poets, Professors, Instructors of the young, let it be your divine labour to quicken our Germany with a hate of England so vast, so holy, so unappeasable that we need fear no more the danger of her hating us."]

The Nation.

A CHEERFUL GIVER.
John Bull shoulders his biggest Budget.—*Punch.*

ECONOMICS OF THE WAR

BY PROF. ANDREW TEMPLETON, M.A., B.D.,

(OF THE MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.)

AT the close of the day, August 1, before a single shot had been fired, and before any destruction of wealth had taken place, the money market in London showed how serious even then was the economic condition of the world—the London Stock Exchange was closed for the first time in its existence. Everyone in business owes and is owed money, has assets and liabilities. The whole business and financial community, which is now worldwide, is tied together by the nexus of creditor and debtor. It is like a house of cards. If one large debtor, on whom the whole community counts to pay his debts "falls down," they all may do the same. If in normal times one large debtor's failure may produce at least a local crisis demanding sometimes special legislation, we can guess at the far-reaching effect when the debtors are whole nations.

Although 1913 was a record year for Great Britain's trade yet the present crisis has come on the top of a long period of unrest and depression, unrest due to the Balkan Wars, rumours of greater wars, tension in Europe, revolution in Mexico, depression due to overtrading in Canada, the Argentine, Brazil and other new countries. And although these conditions have not affected Britain seriously, nevertheless she is perhaps more sensitive than any other nation to the thrills in the monetary world. London is the centre of all finance; Germany is her debtor—so are most of the nations of Europe. Now in days when even the primitive method of paying debts, viz., by shipping actual bullion is unsafe, we cannot expect the intricate machinery of credit, trust, and bills to be left unaffected. England is the creditor of the world; as a matter of fact it is estimated that at any one time there are probably in the market in London £300,000,000 of bills for the account of nearly every country in the world. Now without multiplying detail the position is simply this: a considerable portion of these bills are on foreign countries, if not those we are actually at war with, then those that are directly affected by the war. At the first whisper of trouble on the Continent, London was deluged with bills; now bills change hands many times in their short life, and this rush simply meant that the people who at the moment had the bills in hand did not wish to take any risk and naturally turned to London to have these bought by the Banks there. In normal times of course there would be no difficulty for this vast and delicate machinery of credit works wonderfully smoothly. Now the Bank holds the bill till it becomes due, and those whose undertakings have been financed thereby remit money to the bank when the bills reach maturity. It is apparent that unless this stream of remittances continues to flow without check, the banks cannot continue to purchase the bills as they come forward. There is a sudden stoppage, a sudden blow to credit which has the same effect on the discount market as the cutting of a main cable in a great electric power system—soon the whole system comes to a stop. As a matter of fact it required only two or three days, from July 28 to 31 to paralyse the market completely. The connection was cut and the remittances ceased to flow. The immediate result is what we saw in the belligerent countries, money became scarce and interest rose to entice it, bills were plentiful and for the great risk discount rose abnormally high. But a feature emerged in the London market which is absent in any purely internal crisis. The whole world owes very large sums to London. They cannot now pay them; Germany and Austria must wait until the war is over and the others until the moratoria that have been declared are at an end and the exchanges become normal. If it is unpleasant for a debtor to be unable to pay his debts, it is much more unpleasant for a creditor not to get them paid, and this is the position in which London has been placed.

Internally there was an immediate rush by depositors in banks for gold, of which there was a probability of hoarding if there was the slightest evidence of shortage in currency. To meet this difficulty the Government "agreed to provide the banks with an ample supply of £1 and 10s. notes to the extent of 20 per cent. of their deposits." But there was still the difficulty of the payment of bills falling due and to meet this the Govern-

ment declared a moratorium, or postponement of debts for one month applicable at first to bills of exchange only, and then made more general to cover all payments and contracts with certain specified exceptions.

It may not be out of place here to ask what exactly is implied by a Moratorium. Now, however unwise in normal times it may appear for a Government to interfere in the finances of a country, nothing but praise can be given to those responsible for the extraordinary boldness that has saved many from bankruptcy and the nation from a crisis. When credit had disappeared she stepped in and made herself responsible by guaranteeing to the Bank of England the repayment of debts at present uncollected; and recently she has gone further and arranged to guarantee the loss by loans made to members of the London Stock Exchange. By this means she hopes to make permanent the work begun in the moratorium. A moratorium as the name implies is always a temporary measure. A moratory law, as the authorities express it, is "a law passed in times of emergency postponing for a specified time the due date of the bills of exchange and other obligations." Now whereas on previous occasions, i.e., in the case of the Balkan States and of France in 1870-71 it is generally continued till the end of the war, Government in the present instance by its bold undertaking has made the continuance of the moratorium unnecessary. The significance of this will appear later. Meanwhile let us note the immediate purpose of a moratorium is to save a total collapse in the nation's finances. This is not the same thing as insolvency—for the assets, as in the case of London, may be very great—and yet a moratorium be necessary. But the shock of war so disorganised the finances of the world that even if those who in London were more creditors than debtors, being cut off from those to whom they had lent, had been pressed for payment at home on their bills becoming due, would have gone bankrupt; and so we would have seen the anomaly of the prosperous becoming bankrupt amidst their prosperity. Now obviously this could only be a very temporary condition, and the temporary moratorium was to save embarrassed prosperity from the unfair reward of improvidency. Thus we read that under the Postponement of Payment Act 1914, that "whereas His Majesty has power by proclamation to authorise postponement of the payment of the Bills of Exchange, or any negotiable instrument, ... And whereas it is expedient that provision should be made for the purpose of such postponement of payment . . . . . we have thought fit by and with the advice of Our Privy Council to issue this Our Royal Proclamation." Now this proclamation at first extending over one month, and then later over two months, was in respect of any Bills of Exchange, "being a Bill of Exchange dated before 4th August 1914 or in respect of any such contract." But reservations were made, and the proclamation did not apply to (1) any payment in respect of wages and salary; (2) rates; rents and taxes; (3) maritime freight; (4) debt from any person resident in the British Island; (5) dividend or interest; (6) liability of a bank note; (7) old age pensions; (8) insurance; (9) payment under the Workman's Compensation Act, etc.

In regard however to the Moratorium we must specially note, what is self-evident when we remember that in France, the Moratorium already declared may continue till the end of the war, that its object is to save from Bankruptcy, those whose solvency has been undermined as the result of the exceptional war conditions. It does not mean total suspension of payments; indeed it is implied that all who can pay are in honour to themselves and their country under the obligation not only of personal contract, but national welfare bound to pay if at all possible. But unfortunately like many another effort to alleviate, it has been subject to abuse by the unscrupulous. We saw that when payment of the Bill was postponed, interest was charged upon it for the period of extension; this charge was at the rate of 5 per cent. During the same time of strain we also saw that the discount charged by the Bank approached 10 per cent. Now many who could very well pay the Matured Bill at the beginning of August, but who also saw the possibility of extension of trade, or of making money, when the bank interest was high retained their ready cash; and by accepting the opportunity the Moratorium gave them of a delay of another month at 5 per cent., they were able to use their gold to bring in 10 per cent. Now obviously this is an abuse; the Moratorium was never meant to stop payment where payment was possible, but to delay payment where enforcement would result in Bankruptcy.

It is not difficult to see how a war of destruction might easily be carried on in this nation, where the currents are so delicate and subtle as well as by land and sea and air. And Germany with her usual thoroughness had ready a formidable bomb to throw into the London Market. The dislocation of the money market would have taken

place to some extent in any case, but it could not possibly have been so bad, but for that which was made a direct instrument of war. Germany has many British Securities amounting to millions; about the middle of July when war was inevitable with France and probable with Britain, she immediately launched into the London Market these Securities, willing to sacrifice a million or two if only she could produce a panic. The immediate result of course was the lowering of their value and sudden scare on the part of those who held similar securities, and a rush to sell lest they might still go down. Financiers are persuaded that this was a real act of war on the part of Germany—for it affected not only those who held similar securities but by withdrawing money from the London Market it touched the whole body of Depositors. How nearly she succeeded we have said enough to show, and we cannot praise too highly the promptitude of a Government which saved her from an annihilation quite as real as that from which the Expeditionary Force was saved at the Battle of Mons.

Now if it is true that money is the sinews of war, and that it can be used as a weapon' with such amazing affect it is not out of place to ask, having seen Germany's method of attack, how far she herself is vulnerable. We know that Britain was not alone in her financial troubles; she met them temporarily by the Moratorium; how has Germany acted in the same circumstances? With her wonted thoroughness she has been preparing for this crisis for years; the last effort towards its completion was the sale of foreign securities before the opening of the war—thus drawing to herself as much gold as she possibly could. We may take it then that initially Germany was better prepared for immediate eventualities than her neighbours, but her vulnerability makes its appearance when we take a larger view of the situation. After all once the first shock is over, the question becomes how can the belligerent countries find the necessary money, *i.e.*, by what methods and then how long can she continue to find it. Speaking generally Britain is already in a position of comparative safety. None of the countries is itself self-sufficient; all with the possible exception of Russia are dependent even for the bare necessaries of life on others; trade cannot proceed unless the world is open to the nation in question; she must live on herself; and however possible this may be in times of peace, in war when millions are being spent unproductively exhaustion must inevitably come. The German fleet is in the Kiel Canal, her merchantmen are either captured or rendered useless, soon there will not be a single German vessel on the water highways; to Britain the sea-routes are open, thousands of her vessels are ploughing the deep from pole to pole, her navy is setting watch over the impotent Germans. Germany is being forced back upon her resources, which are steadily disappearing in shell and smoke; the ends of the earth still calls upon Britain to work for her by sea, and the people who need her products may still have them.

It is true that she too must see her savings pass away in smoke—but she is still productive, she is still filling the coffers that war is emptying, she is still carrying on "business as usual." Apart then from previous preparation, apart from the fact that the world's supplies are still open to her obviously even if things remained on the battlefield as they are, she would live, while her enemy had ceased. Further credit of any kind must ultimately have a gold basis—it must have at least a material basis. Destroy that basis, credit must cease. Impoverish it and you have taken the first step towards its disappearance; and every day that passes without replenishment of its material basis is a day nearer the end.

In view of this it is interesting to note the methods adopted by Germany to raise the necessary loans. Dr. Karl Helfferich boasts that this loan has been made entirely from amongst his own people and adds that the participation of neutral countries was not invited in it. This is scarcely true since a serious effort was made by the Germans to float some of the loan in the United States, but America would not touch it But our business is not with such questions, but rather to examine the nature of the method of this loan, with its possible effect upon the war.

According to an official statement, the subscription to the War Loan, which was closed on 19th September 1914, produced the following result:—

Imperial Loan	.. 3,121,001,300	marks.
Imperial Treasury Notes	1,339,727,600	"
Total	4,460,728,900	

The contributors were encouraged, some would say compelled, to transfer their bank accounts from the Bank to the War Loan, to get money on their property, etc., and hand it over for the same purpose in return for which they received the piece of Government paper. This paper could be taken to a bank and money received for it, of course not always the face value of the note;

and if the owner of the paper wished to participate in a second War Loan, he could sell it at a loss, hand the money over to Government and so on. Now obviously there is a limit to such a process; for when you pawn your war loan bonds to apply for a bit of the next war loan, and go on pawning *ad infinitum*, the credit you possess is being steadily eaten away. "Hard cash" is disappearing. Ultimately everything is being paid through the War Loan. Neutral countries, to whom Germany is a debtor, have no choice—they are told that the money due them has been invested in the War Loan, and they have to accept War Loan Bonds at a certain interest. Now apart from the criticism to which a method so high-handed is open, obviously this is payment by instrument of credit, whose only strength lies in its material basis. Now if the material basis is being whittled away, credit grows steadily less; if the country is cut off from trade and bullion loans from other countries, there is no means of refilling the quickly emptying coffers. This is Germany's position. And be it noted, at the opening of the war, not to speak of the results since, her credit was not so good as Britain's. The best guide to the comparative credit enjoyed by the various Powers is afforded by the statement of interest offered on their leading stocks at current prices:—

	£	s.
Austria	4	18
France	3	18
Germany	4	3
Great Britain	3	10
Russia	5	0

This means that Great Britain can raise money in normal times on terms very much cheaper than Germany. And here are the facts concerning the recent loans made in the two countries. In Britain, the Chancellor of the Exchequer obtained the right to sell Treasury Bills to the sum of £150,000,000. He issued these in lots of £15,000,000; for every lot there were subscribers five and six times over, so that many had to go away disappointed in their wish to participate. But what is most significant he did not require to raise the interest above 3½ per cent. Later he sought to sell £350,000,000 Treasury Bills; again there was no need to raise the percentage.

Germany, on the other hand, has from the first required to pay 5 per cent. and with her waning credit and no compulsion, future loans would require to be made at a much higher rate. But in this land where "Might is Right," it does not follow that economic laws no more than the moral laws of obligation will be allowed to express their inevitable tendency in the price of money. We need not, therefore, take it that because this interest is not raised that therefore the credit is not depleted; appearances may be what they may, we cannot alter the inevitable fact. Thus Britain's primary advantage has been enhanced beyond recognition by the situation at present on the continent—but there is more to add before we can in even a general way calculate the chances from the financial point of view.

In the first instance then it is credit and the continuance thereof that will have to work itself out, thereafter when that has disappeared the actual bullion behind it will be eaten up. The credit of Britain is incomparably greatest; the chances of its continuance are innumerably strongest. The possession of international credit as distinct from merely national is of the greatest importance; Britain has it, Germany has none. Now as to the actual Bullion held by the Powers at the opening of the War, the Banks of the five Great Powers give this return:—

Austria	£64,200,000
France	189,700,000
Germany	84,500,000
Great Britain	40,200,000
Russia	174,500,000

These sums only become available as a war chest if their primary functions as a backing of paper currency and credit were suspended. And further the amount of the bullion is not a test of the credit enjoyed by the nations. Britain's gold reserve is the lowest, but it is the most valuable because it forms the backing of an immense volume of credit of international value. But against this reserve we must put the national debts of the various countries:—

Austria	£794,000,000
France	1,315,000,000
Germany	741,000,000
Great Britain	707,000,000
Russia	900,000,000

Now it seems to us that so far as the national debt is concerned, the point which affects a nation's borrowing power now is whether loans have been made on it during the last ten years, or whether part of it has been paid up. Both Germany and Austria have borrowed. While Britain has been paying off debt, Germany and Austria-Hungary between them have increased their national debt by the enormous sum of about £300,000,000.

Remembering then that the cost of the war, which at the beginning for Britain was about

£5,000,000 per week and is now nearer a million per day and for Germany about £8,000,000 per week and now nearer 11 millions per week, we may take it that so far as financial resources go, evidence is strongly in favour of Great Britain. At a time when practically every continental bourse is suspended, the London Stock Exchange is now continuing its operations, and the first shock over the Banks and the Money Markets are doing the same. No country stands alone, all will lose, but if the power of the largest purse means anything, the Allies should win. If the war lasts long enough to allow of the inevitable results of the various methods coming to a full issue, then a catastrophe is overhanging Germany; and with reverses multiplying it may be that sooner than her arms fail her, living upon herself as she is now doing, the collapse will come in the most nervous part of her organism by the utter impoverishment of the Sinews of War.

But after all money only is what money does; and the first essential is its power of Exchange for the necessaries of life. We cannot have these if there is no money; nor can we have these, however much money we have if we are cut off from supplies. We have seen the probable result of the first contingency, what about the second? A nation may be starved into submission—if it is not in the happy position of being able to supply all its needs. In the days of the Napoleonic wars this was true of all the nations, to-day it is not. It will be of interest therefore to take stock of those that are entirely self-supporting and those that are not, and see how they have been placed in the present crisis. Any calculation that can be made must necessarily refer to normal times—and we must therefore remember that a very considerable decrease in productivity must be allowed for in the time of war. Russia as a food-producer is self-contained and can even lend substantial help to others. France, Austria and Hungary can support themselves. Britain and to a less extent Germany cannot. Belgium so far as immediate future harvest is concerned is hopeless. Germany may have laid in vast stores, but the manufacture of her bread now with a mixture of potatoes and flour is not reassuring; in any case the need for men for war purposes must seriously affect her coming harvest, and help from abroad is impossible. England free from invasion will sow and reap as usual, while the harvest-fields of the world's greatest wheat producers are open to her. Luxuries may be dispensed with, but bread all must have. Here Russia is supreme; next to United States she is the greatest wheat producer in the world; France can look after herself—so might Austria if her lands are not devastated. The question then of food supply narrows itself down to the position of Britain and Germany. Britain raises about 65,000,000 bushels of wheat on an average each year and imports 217,000,000; Germany grows 149,000,000 bushels and imports 67,000,000. Evidently then Germany is not so badly off in normal times, but if the 67,000,000 are cut off and harvests are shortened because of the exigencies of war, her position is disquieting. The position then is Russia has abundance; France raises more than 10 per cent. of the wheat she requires; Germany roughly 60 per cent. and the United Kingdom a little over 40 per cent. each. The situation takes on a new complexion however when we turn to the source of the supplies. Britain's supplies come chiefly from within the Empire, Canada, Australia and India. This is indicated by the following statement:—

	Wheat in Cwts.
From British Empire	50,700,000
„ United States	34,100,000
„ Argentine	14,800,000
„ Russia	5,000,000
„ Rest of World	1,300,000
Total	105,900,000

So far as the war is concerned, the chief point here is that Britain draws very little grain from the continent and can easily dispense with these while other sources are open; they are likely to continue open throughout the war, and a long continuance of it will stimulate the production of wheat. She may rest content on this score.

Very different is Germany's case with her closed ports. Germany is more dependent for her wheat on the continent especially Russia, with whom she is now at war. Here is a table showing the importations for a year:—

	Cwts.
From Russia	11,168,440
„ Argentine	10,928,780
„ Canada	5,390,600
„ United States	8,930,240
„ Australia	6,451,800

None of these sources are now open to Germany, while the harvest for 1914 may not have been properly garnered while that for 1915 will be sown and reaped under trying circumstances. The ad-

vantages in this matter are all on the side of the Allies.

In regard to meat Britain is much better off so far as home production is concerned. She herself produces 60 per cent. of the whole supply, while for the remaining 40 per cent. she can well depend upon Canada, United States, the Argentine and Australia. Apparently then the closing of the German and Austrian ports is not of much importance to the United Kingdom so far as foodstuffs are concerned. Meat famines have not been unknown in recent years in Germany owing to her protective policy, and now even if she would she cannot augment her meat supplies from abroad. The situation then so far as the belligerent countries are concerned is this: Russia, France and Austria are self-supporting, Germany and the United Kingdom are not, both are dependent on outside supplies, especially Great Britain—but while she can obtain these supplies from outside, Germany cannot. Moreover, the closing of the German ports must divert to British markets supplies that would otherwise have gone to Germany, and so the prices will tend to be kept down for the Briton.

But this leads us to another consideration as to the re-disposition and re-distribution of trade during the war and the legitimate prizes of captured industry after the war. Meanwhile the German export trade has been almost completely cut off; it is well-nigh impossible for her to obtain raw materials; the same remark applies to Austria-Hungary; and the importance of this can only be estimated when we remember that Germany follows Britain very closely in the export of the same kind of goods. Now it is true that the war has deprived Britain of many of her European customers, but just as it is true that her indispensable imports come from places outside of Europe, so her exports are chiefly sold to places out of Europe. The following analysis of her trade for 1913 shows this:—

	Imports from	Exports to
Enemy Powers—	£	£
Germany	80,500,000	40,700,000
Austria-Hungary	7,700,000	4,500,000
Allies and Neutral European Powers	221,000,000	133,400,000
Total ..	309,200,000	178,600,000
Rest of the World	459,800,000	346,900,000
Grand Total ..	769,000,000	525,500,000

Comparatively speaking the war should have but a limited effect upon this trade—since trade with enemy powers though considerable is not after all a large proportion of the whole; whereas the competition of Germany and Austria-Hungary is cancelled, and the British manufacturer is free from the assaults of his most formidable competitor. The following analysis of the German and Austrian trade for 1912 makes this clear:—

	Imports.	Exports.
Germany—	£	£
Food and Animals	157,400,000	39,200,000
Raw Materials	289,200,000	116,600,000
Manufactures	79,100,000	284,600,000
Total ..	525,700,000	440,400,000
Austria-Hungary—	£	£
Food & Raw Materials	83,600,000	40,000,000
Manufactures	64,600,000	73,900,000
Total ..	148,200,000	113,900,000

On the one hand we see the serious position Germany must be in, cut off from such extensive imports, but what is significant for us just now is the large export in manufactured articles that has also ceased. Between them Austria-Hungary export close on £400,000,000 of manufactured articles. This is the opportunity that the war has thrust upon those, whose hands are sufficiently free to take it. To America and ourselves this is very significant, for the articles manufactured are especially those both are interested in—particularly Britain. Without giving a complete list here are some of the chief exports for 1913:—

	£
Iron and Steel ..	66,900,000
Machinery ..	33,900,000
Electrical Goods ..	14,000,000
Dyes, etc. ..	13,000,000

Now obviously in regard to the first three, there is room for Britain seizing as a prize of war many markets already occupied by Germany. Germany's success in these directions, it must be remembered, is the result of great industry and application, unparalleled initiative, and earnest devotion to science, and any who seek to compete with her or usurp her place must be prepared to meet great demands. But the point is, there are few things which she can manufacture and we cannot; it is true that in dyes, chemical stuff, etc., we have never competed, and yet it is just here that the British Board of Trade has shown itself alive to

the possibilities. It is not often a Free Trade Government subsidises a trade, and yet this is exactly what has been done. A Committee with Lord Haldane as Chairman and served by some of the ablest British Scientists is at work. Special reports have been obtained from the Trade Commissioners in the colonies regarding the German imports, particular articles are noted for special attention in each of the colonies, and the possibility of their manufacture in some part of the British Empire is being considered. It is too soon to prophesy regarding special branches—though it is difficult to see how Britain will fail to take the opportunity of producing more electrical instruments, dynamos, batteries, arc lamps, etc., for while Germany exported £8,000,000 of these, Britain exported £2,500,000—to mention only one of many possibilities; but it seems well-nigh certain that if she is successful in the war there opens before her a yet wider future of usefulness.

Let it not be forgotten for a moment however that meanwhile the whole world is poorer because the nations of Europe are locked in deadly conflict. Even those people who have taken European products may not have the money to purchase any longer. Demand is not what it was, and it is not simply a matter of Britain or America stepping in and picking up something that is endowed with anything like permanence and previously possessed by Germany. The position of India serves as a warning against a task apparently simple or hopes that are too sanguine. On the West Coast there has been hardship because the continent and chiefly Germany has ceased to take the cocoanuts and groundnuts; cotton has had a check; jute and hemp have been held up. Fortunately Italy is beginning to take the hemp.

India is emphatically a producer of raw material, and the pity is that her industrial development is not sufficiently far advanced to seize this opportunity of using her own raw material and producing the articles themselves. Just because of this she is hit both from the side of export and import, and she is asked therein to bear not only the burden of Empire but the burden of the whole world, for in the meantime we all stand to lose. Britain cannot take all she produces even if she so desired.

To the countries at war she exported goods to the following value:—

		£
To Austria-Hungary	..	4,834,774
Belgium	..	8,758,162
France	..	10,502,714
Germany	..	16,575,543
Russia	..	1,328,576

The total export to these countries then is just under £42,000,000.

India stands to lose practically the whole of this; these are the plain facts of the case. Now as she has been fulfilling the obligations of Empire in Europe, she may expect a fuller recognition of her rights. It is apparently not sufficient in India's present position to point to sugar, matches, glassware, etc., and say there is her opportunity. Efforts in this direction have already been made and have failed, and the causes have not always been financial but inherent in the conditions and to some extent it may be in herself. But if the Board of Trade at home thinks it so far wise to subsidise the dye trade, is it not possible that this may also be an occasion for an alteration of the Government policy in the matter of India's industrial evolution?

Forgetting not the warnings then, relieved from arrogance and pride, saved from a prospect too ideal, we may rest content that the economics of the war indubitably indicate success to the Allies. Britain's "place in the Sun" will neither fade nor diminish, nor will the ethics of the superman supersede the ethics of the Carpenter of Nazareth.

Indian Industrial and Economic Problems

By V. G. KALE, M.A.,

(Professor, Fergusson College, Poona.)

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MODERN FRANCE: HER TRIBULATIONS

BY PROF. FERRAND E. CORLEY, M.A.,

(OF THE MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.)

THE history of modern France hinges on the Revolution and on the figure of Napoleon, the man in whom the Revolution in some sense culminated, however little the Imperial *régime* may seem to harmonize with the genius of the Revolution as a whole. These two factors have in the main determined the problems and the evolution of French politics during the succeeding century. In domestic affairs, the Revolution has powerfully affected both the forms and the principles of French life. Since the Revolution, the Constitution has always been a dominant interest in French politics. The undefined traditions of the *Ancient Régime* had been swept away; constitutionalism, in one form or another, was inevitable. The many experiments during the Revolution itself might prove abortive: but the successive crises of her subsequent history argue that France can never again rest content with anything but a clear and authoritative statement of the form her government is to follow. Something in the nature of a constituent assembly, defining and sanctioning the fabric, must furnish a legal basis for the actual political order. No less decisively, the Revolution has given a democratic cast to French political principles. The restoration of the monarchy in 1815, the resuscitation of the Napoleonic Empire, must not be allowed to obscure the tenacious adhesion of the nation to the principles which the Revolution had endeavoured to formulate in the familiar triad, Liberty, Fraternity, Equality. It is on this rock that the monarchic efforts have eventually split. The sentiment of democracy, the conviction that every man should have his part as a free citizen in a free state, more than any attachment to particular forms, has made modern France so persistently republican.

But it is not only in home affairs that we can trace the leaven of the Revolution. It left a powerful impress also on the European position of France. The fever of revolutionary enthusiasm, infecting other lands, made France in a special sense, what the gifts of her children well fitted her to be, the leader of European thought. At the same time, the excesses of the Revolution, and the menace of anarchy which they begot, raised up against France a legion of enemies. The successive coalitions of her European neighbours against France, rendered doubly necessary when the ambition of Napoleon threatened them with a personal and dynastic domination, placed her in a position of antagonism to the older governments which has continued to modify her foreign relations. Bitter experience has taught France not to repeat the Revolutionary aberration of forcing her own principles on other states at the point of the sword. But she has not forgotten her mission as a leader of the nations. Her ready disposition to foster and encourage the spirit of nationality and liberty, as shown by her intervention in Greek and Italian affairs, is part of her inheritance from the Revolution. The repeated co-operation of France and Britain in international crises, and the cordial understanding between the two nations which has culminated in the present war, would hardly have been possible but for the community of their ideals. However they may differ in the form of their governments, both nations are actuated by the same conviction of the worth of national liberty, which predisposes them to sympathy with those who are struggling to be free.

The influence of Napoleon is less easy to define. It is his misfortune that the dazzling brilliance of his military career has obscured the world's perception of his real claim to greatness as a ruler. But the ordered national system and the carefully elaborated code of law, characteristic of France to-day, are largely the work of Napoleon. It is in this, rather than in his external politics, that Napoleon embodied the forces of the Revolution. In each successive turn of the kaleidoscope—and the turns have been many—the pattern given to France by Napoleon has shown a marked consistency. The trappings of the Empire have come and gone; the work of the Emperor remains. Hardly less powerful has been his influence on the external politics of France. His surpassing military success covered France with a glory and inspired her with an appetite for ascendancy which have not been unmixed blessings either to her or to the world. For good and for evil, it is impossible for France, so long as the influence of Napoleon survives, to be content with a "back seat." The good side of this may be

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NAPOLEON WITH CZAR ALEXANDER
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seen in that high sense of international responsibility, that responsiveness to the call of other nations in their straits, already referred to. Unfortunately, the Napoleonic tradition has sometimes taken the form of a restless activity, a disposition to domineer, which other nations have pardonably resented, and which her enemies (and notably Bismarck) have been enabled to work upon in order to place her in a position of dangerous isolation. Further, the dynastic career of Napoleon, by bequeathing a heritage of unsatisfied ambition, and a supply of dangerous precedents, has furnished a sinister complication to her politics. The aims, real or supposed, of successive pretenders, from Louis Napoleon to Boulanger, have militated against stability. They have imparted a spirit of unrest to her internal atmosphere and reduced her strength in international relations. At the same time, the memory of Napoleon contributed much to those traditional antagonisms to France maintained by England and Russia, and even more disastrously by Prussia, which have been responsible for the most serious external difficulties which France has had to encounter.

The supreme task, therefore, set to France as a nation during the last hundred years has been how to conserve what was best in the heritage of the Revolution without succumbing to the danger of its extremes. The achievement of this task has been pursued, amid all the ups and downs of fortune, with a remarkable concentration of purpose, which the ebb and flow of sentiment must not cause us to overlook. A brief review of the history of France may serve to throw it into relief:

The triumph of the European allies at Waterloo was followed by the Restoration of the Bourbons, not so much as an expression of the will of France as by the overwhelming force of the victors. Bereft of Napoleon, France was no match for the forces against her; she had no choice but to accept the Restoration. Even so, the Bourbons might have hoped for a long lease of power, had they possessed the genius to give France, along with the internal peace and the confidence of her neighbours, which the Napoleonic *régime* had rendered impossible, the personal liberty, the recognition of the rights of man, which England had learnt to enjoy under a constitutional monarchy. But, as the classic dictum runs, the Bourbons "had learnt nothing, had forgotten nothing." It soon became apparent that in place of liberty, of which France had not tasted in vain, the old era of privilege and oppression was the Bourbon ideal. At the same time, the impotence of France among the Powers, though partially ameliorated by her intervention in the affairs of Spain and of Greece, was not likely to be cured by the Bourbons and their reactionary ministers. The dominance of priest and noble was as little to the mind of a France that had drunk of the springs of the Revolution as was the secondary position now assigned to her in the councils of Europe. The new wave of national feeling, and of aspiration on the part of the masses, which passed over Europe about 1830, leading (amongst other things) to the recognition of Belgium as a separate state, vibrated through France, and the Bourbon monarchy was unequal to the shock. Yet we may see how far the nation was from the desire to plunge into revolutionary extremes when we look at the form taken by the political upheaval of 1830. The "July Monarchy" of Louis Philippe represents the desire to achieve constitutional liberty—to combine democratic freedom with that stability and sanity of procedure which monarchy seemed to promise better than the somewhat discredited forms of republican government. But the compromise thus attempted was unsuccessful. The personal qualities of Louis Philippe, his good qualities no less than his defects, had the result of estranging rather than conciliating sympathies. An usurper in the eyes of the Legitimists, he could never count on the adhesion of the monarchic party, while the strongly personal character of his government exasperated the more democratic sections of the country. Republicanism, growing stronger in its appeal to moderate men in proportion as its earlier excesses faded from memory, became in increasing measure the political creed of France. Perhaps its most serious set-back came from the violence of the extreme wing, the "Red Republicans," who recalled the fanaticism of the eighteenth century, and whose outburst, like that of the "Commune" in 1870, cost France a heavy toll of lives and treasure. No doubt, also, the recognition of the need of a strong controlling hand, if the best, and not the worst, harvest of republicanism was to be reaped, contributed to the success of Louis Napoleon as candidate for the Presidency of the new Republic, and to the later ratification by the people of the Prince-President's *coup d'état*. Thus the Second Republic of 1848 gave place, in 1851, to the Second Empire, with Louis Napoleon as Emperor under the title of Napoleon III.

The history of the Second Empire forms one of

the most interesting chapters in the story of modern France. Its failure is to be attributed in part to the personality of the Emperor, who was really overweighed by his self-chosen rôle, in part to the relentless nemesis which offered the humiliation of France as the readiest means for the man of "Blood and Iron" to accomplish his dream of a united Germany. The first years of the Empire (down to 1860) were strongly autocratic in character, and the Napoleonic legend was supreme. The successful intervention of France against Russia in the Crimean War, and against Austria in the liberation of Italy, did much to restore the prestige of France, and to enable her to feel that she was again a power in the world. At the same time the activity undertaken in Syria, China and Indo-China contributed its part in making France once more a great colonial power. But external glory, though deeply gratifying to the Frenchman, could not by itself satisfy him. The personal rule of the Emperor ran counter to the instinct of freedom. Napoleon III, whether from generous impulse (a marked feature of his character) or from prudence, endeavoured to satisfy the demands of his countrymen by the development (from 1860 to 1870) of that "Liberal Empire," which is still an enigma to the historian. The experiment seemed to be approaching a successful completion when the fevered foreign policy of the Emperor's advisers, buoyed up by the baseless self-confidence of an incompetent, if not corrupt, Ministry of War, plunged the country into the disastrous war with Prussia which speedily became a war with Germany. Miscalculations as egregious as those of Germany in the present crisis left France without an ally, a prey to an enemy too strong for her. France proved that the ancient spirit was not dead in her by the superb heroism of her resistance. But the flower of her armies was betrayed by the bungling of her generals at Metz and Sedan, and the improvised levies of the later months of the war, though magnificent in courage, and skilfully handled by men like Chanzy and Faidherbe, could not cope with the seasoned corps of Germany. In the throes of the war itself the Empire fell, and the German Empire was born. Beaten to her knees at last by the surrender of Paris, France was made to pay an enormous indemnity (two hundred millions sterling) and to cede the frontier provinces of Alsace and Northern Lorraine to the conquerors, German troops remaining in occupation of French fortresses till the indemnity should be paid. The bitterness left by this humiliation, as every one is aware, has been one of the main strands in the entanglements that led up to the war of 1914.

Never has the greatness of the French people been more fully revealed than in the wonderful recovery of the next forty years. Their superlative thrift made it possible to pay off the whole of the indemnity by 1873—in little more than two years from the signing of peace. Not only so, but the increasingly heavy burdens of military service in the building up of a new national army, and colossal expenditure on the fortification of the north-east frontier (so dangerously near to Paris), have been shouldered most manfully. Indeed, the recovery of France was so rapid that in 1875 it seemed probable that Germany would strive to protect herself by crushing her adversary afresh. The danger, if real, was averted by the diplomatic intervention of Russia and Britain—a fitting augury of the great Alliance of to-day. Moreover, the building up of her colonial empire, especially in Africa, went steadily on; and in spite of all her sufferings, France has incontestably maintained her position as one of the Great Powers. The annexation of Alsace-Lorraine by Germany has had the most unfortunate results for European diplomacy by rendering any permanent understanding between the two countries impossible. France has shown no disposition to provoke a war for the recovery of the lost provinces. But it was not to be expected that she could finally acquiesce in their loss. All the world knew that if France fought Germany again, and if she won, she would reclaim her own.

Apart from the *Revanche*, the most serious crises in French foreign policy concerned her relations with England, war with whom was but narrowly averted at the time of the Marchand Expedition to the Sudan. Happily, the good sense of the two nations kept them from war; and the successive understandings reached with regard to African and Colonial affairs have steadily developed into the *Entente*, which has proved so great a factor in the affairs of the last ten years. The continued German menace also drove France to seek an alliance by which her safety might be guaranteed. As long ago as 1881, a distinguished French publicist sketched for his country the following programme: "The Balance of European Power is the end towards which our national policy should tend, now that France is able to look beyond herself. This policy does not bring a nation glory, but it enables it to live with honour and security. That balance can only be maintained by means of alliances. France can find opportunity to ally herself now with Eng-

land, now with Russia, now with Italy, and now again with those three Powers simultaneously, if a common and compelling interest urges such a coalition in the interest of European equilibrium, threatened by the predominance of Germany, strengthened by Austrian support." The programme has been strikingly fulfilled. The adhesion of Italy to the Germanic Powers, however hollow it has since proved, made her alliance with France impossible. Nevertheless, an important understanding on Mediterranean affairs was reached in 1901, and the reluctance of Italy to contemplate war with the sister Latin nation has been unmistakable. The alliance with Russia became an accomplished fact in 1894 and 1896, and the solid backing which England has given to France since the conclusion of the *Entente*—notably in 1904-5, in 1908, and in 1914—has had the substantial value of an alliance. The fact that France, in 1905, submitted to the German demand for the dismissal of her Foreign minister, M. Delcassé, and that the Powers of the Triple *Entente* declined to push their views to the point of war in 1908, may be taken as a sufficient evidence of devotion to the cause of peace. But the harmony between the Powers remained unshaken, alike through the Morocco crisis of 1904, the Balkan crisis of 1908, and the later incident of Agadir in 1910. Its stability was finally shown in August, 1914. Thanks to her alliance with Russia and her good understanding with England, France has been able to take the field without misgiving against her foe, while the achievements of her armies in the field have shown how greatly everything has changed since 1870.

Internally, the Third Republic has justified itself as successfully as in foreign policy. Against clericalism and ultramontanism on the one hand, against the extremes of syndicalism on the other, France has resolutely maintained her determination to conserve the fruits of the Revolution by the combination of freedom and settled order. The monarchist intrigues, acute enough in 1871, when the Republic had to make head against a National Assembly, actually installed, of predominantly monarchist sentiments, have receded more and more into the background. Neither the Legitimist pretender nor the military adventurer of the Napoleon-Boulanger type would command much support in France to-day. The great natural resources of the country have been wisely husbanded, as the financial strength of France in the present war has shown. France stands before the world to-day as a great state, well-knit, vigorous and competent, not bellicose, yet not unprepared to fight for her vital interests, conscious of her strength, and determined to use it for the development of her national purpose. The whole world may rejoice at the proved sufficiency of the Republic, guided by humane and liberal ideals, in face of the reactionary tendencies of Prussian militarism.

HOLLAND.

BY PROF. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A.

ALTHOUGH the little country which English-speaking people call Holland has so far been fortunate enough to maintain its neutrality, its proximity to Germany and Belgium, with all that that implies, is naturally attracting much attention to it, and a short historical sketch of its past may, therefore, be of interest at the present time. The official designation of the country is not Holland but the Kingdom of the Netherlands. That name is, however, hardly a hundred years old, and has been somewhat inappropriate ever since 1830, the date when Belgium, composing half of the Netherlands, revolted and became an independent Kingdom. Before the changes introduced by the French Revolution the country, over which Queen Wilhelmina now rules, was known as the United Provinces. Holland was one of these provinces and as it was by far the most important of them its name was frequently given to the whole country. Holland contained Amsterdam and Rotterdam the chief ports, the Hague the official capital, and other important towns. The wealth and enterprise of its merchants made its name known throughout the world, and it was, therefore, not unnatural that the whole confederacy of little republics became known by the name of its leading state. It is more surprising that we do not call the inhabitants of the country by the name Hollanders, but designate them by a term which was formerly applied generally—as indeed it is still by the British sailor—to other peoples of Germanic origin. The Germans call themselves Deutsch, and in former times we used to distinguish between the High Dutch who lived inland and the Low Dutch who lived on the coast, and

who spoke different dialects. Now we have come to restrict the term Dutch to the inhabitants and language of Holland, and we do not apply it even to the kindred Low German peoples found in Belgium and on the coasts of Germany.

The history of Holland down to the middle of the sixteenth century is very much the same as that of Belgium. Like Belgium it for centuries formed part of the Roman Empire; and when the Teutonic invasions took place, it also passed into the hands of the Franks. One difference, however, may be noted. Holland seems all along to have been more purely Teutonic, and the Frisians and Saxons who inhabited the northern parts were probably closely akin to the Teutonic invaders of Britain. Like the rest of the Netherlands it formed part of the Middle Kingdom brought into existence by the Treaty of Verdun in 843, became in time part of the Duchy of Lorraine, disintegrated into several provinces, all of which ultimately came into the possession of the Valois Dukes of Burgundy, and passed with the hand of Mary, the heiress of Charles the Bold, into the possession of the House of Hapsburg. The marriage of Philip, the son of Mary and the Emperor Maximilian, to Juana, the heiress of the crowns of Castile and Aragon, united the Netherlands with the crown of Spain. Charles their son, the future Emperor Charles V., was born at Ghent in 1500, and during his reign the Netherlands enjoyed much prosperity. They formed part of the Empire, being included in the 'circle' known as Burgundy, and their connection with Spain opened up to them a vast field of trade—an opportunity of which they were not slow to take advantage. Antwerp, no doubt, was by far the most important centre of trade, but it was during the first half of the sixteenth century that Amsterdam laid the foundations of its future commercial greatness.

The connection with Spain had, however, less fortunate results for the Netherlands. The sixteenth century witnessed the movement towards absolute monarchy in Europe, and the Hapsburg Sovereigns who had crushed the liberties of Spain were little inclined to recognise the rights of the Estates in the Netherlands. The question was complicated too by the spread of the doctrines of the Reformation. Charles V. was a good Catholic, even though his soldiers might on occasion sack Rome and commit atrocities worse than those of the Huns; and his son and successor Philip II. was the champion of the Counter-Reformation. Such men could not brook the existence of heresy in their dominions, and hence the Spanish Inquisition, that dire weapon for the suppression of both political and religious liberty, was introduced into the Netherlands. Its introduction led in time to the famous Revolt of the Netherlands and to the creation of a new independent state in Europe.

On the abdication of Charles V. in 1556, Philip II. succeeded to all the Spanish and Burgundian possessions of the Hapsburgs. A thorough Spaniard he did not get on well with his northern subjects, and in 1559 he left the Netherlands never to return. He appointed his half-sister Margaret of Parma, as Regent, and she in accordance with her instructions governed entirely according to Spanish ideas. Persecution went vigorously on. Spanish troops garrisoned the fortresses, and the old liberties of the Provinces were disregarded. The leading men in the Netherlands at this time were Count Egmont, Admiral Horn, and William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, known to history as William the Silent, for whom Charles V. had had a great affection, and who had been appointed by him to be Stadtholder, *i.e.*, Governor, of the three provinces of Holland, Zeeland and Utrecht. Their remonstrances proved futile, and the nobles at last, when a petition they had presented had been curtly refused, formed themselves into a confederacy in defence of their rights. The members of the confederacy called themselves *Gueux*, *i.e.*, Beggars, from an insulting epithet which one of Margaret's advisers had applied to the petitioners. The general excitement soon led to an unfortunate anti-Catholic outbreak on the part of the populace in 1567. Churches were pillaged and images destroyed. The Regent was helpless, but Orange and Egmont restored order and persuaded her to abolish the Inquisition and make other concessions. Philip, however, was determined to have revenge and to extirpate heresy. The Duke of Alva was sent with a Spanish army into the Netherlands which were now quite peaceful, and by both his civil and his military measures showed how a country may be ruined most effectually. Egmont and Horn were seized and executed. Thousands of people were put to death, and thousands more fled to England taking with them their industries and their skill. Antwerp sunk into a position of no importance, and its trade went elsewhere.

William of Orange had succeeded in making his escape into Germany. He now declared himself a Protestant and tried to organise resistance to the Spanish tyranny. His early efforts proved unsuccessful, for Alva had cowed the remaining Netherlanders. In 1572 a number of Dutch

sailors who were leading a semi-piratical existence, with their headquarters on the east coast of England, succeeded in capturing the town of Brill, and this success of the 'Beggars of the Sea,' as they called themselves, was the signal for the rising of the Northern Provinces. William the Silent was invited by the Provinces of Holland, Zeeland and Utrecht, to become their Stadtholder in place of Alva. He returned from Germany and put himself at the head of the movement. Thus began the famous struggle which has been chronicled by Motley in the interesting pages of his *Rise of the Dutch Republic*. Alva was recalled and for a time it looked as if all the seventeen Provinces would unite to throw off the yoke of Spain, but the military skill and the conciliatory attitude of subsequent Governors, notably of Alexander of Parma, the son of the former Regent Margaret, succeeded in regaining most of the Southern Provinces for Spain and Catholicism. In 1579 the seven Northern Provinces formed the defensive union of Utrecht and two years later they renounced their allegiance to Philip II. They were Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overyssel, Friesland and Groningen, and these seven became known as the United Provinces.

It was at this time that an attempt was made to unite all the Netherlands under the sovereignty of a French prince, Francis, Duke of Anjou, the brother of Henry III. of France. There were close relations between the Dutch and the French Protestants, and William the Silent had married a daughter of Admiral Coligny, the most illustrious victim of the massacre of St. Bartholomew. Francis, of course, had no sympathy with Protestantism, but it was the official French policy to annoy Spain in every possible way, and the scheme had the support also of Queen Elizabeth. Francis was at the time one of her suitors and though she had no intention of marrying him, she saw that he might be useful as a foe of Philip's. Francis, however, was a worthless person, and the whole scheme proved a fiasco or worse. The Dutch now decided to make William himself their sovereign prince but just at this time the Spanish plots for assassinating him at last proved successful. William of Orange was shot in Delft in 1584, and the Dutch were deprived of the leadership of the great man to whom they owed their independence.

After the assassination of William the Silent the position of the Dutch seemed so desperate that Queen Elizabeth was compelled to come to their assistance openly. Owing to the incompetency of the Earl of Leicester the help given was not very great, but indirectly it was most useful. Philip turned upon the English and during the rest of his life his main energies were devoted to the war with England, and to the war of the League in France against Henry IV., the first Bourbon king. William's young son Maurice also proved himself to be a brilliant soldier, and the affairs of the country were directed by the sagacious statesman John Van Olden Barneveldt, the Grand Pensionary or Chief Minister of Holland. Gradually the Dutch drove the Spaniards not only out of the seven United Provinces but also out of parts of some of the other provinces notably Northern Brabant and Limburg, until at last in 1609 Philip III. of Spain was compelled, sorely against his will, to conclude a truce for twelve years.

During all this time the Dutch had been growing more powerful at sea and their commerce had been spreading all over the world. In 1580 Philip II. had annexed Portugal to Spain, and thus the Portuguese colonies and the Portuguese trade in the East had become the prey of the enemies of Spain, and the Portuguese monopoly of the trade route round the Cape of Good Hope had come to an end. The Dutch East India Company was founded in 1602, and soon Holland had become the dominant power in far eastern waters, especially in the Malay Archipelago. The trade in spices passed mainly into the hands of the Dutch, and while Lisbon and Antwerp declined, Amsterdam grew in importance till it became the leading commercial city in Europe. Peace and prosperity soon led to internal troubles. The political constitution of the United Provinces was of a peculiar character. The confederation was composed of seven little republics, each of which had its own government consisting of the Estates and a Stadtholder. Each of the republics was really a confederation of towns, and all the political power was in the hands of the burghers. Thus the provinces were for the most part governed by oligarchies of wealthy burghers, amongst whom the citizens of Amsterdam held the most prominent place. Each province had an elected Stadtholder, and in five of them, including Holland, the Prince of Orange was Stadtholder. The estates of each province sent representatives to a central body which was known as the States General, and there was also a central Council of State. The States General elected the Captain General of the Army and the Admiral General had the control of military affairs, but foreign affairs were kept in the hands

of the estates of the provinces. The Stadtholder was a member of the Council of State and appointed the burgomasters of the towns. Holland had a dominating influence in the confederation, and it is not surprising that friction arose between the burgher aristocracy of that province and the house of Orange. It is hardly too much to say that the internal political history of the United Provinces for two centuries is the record of the struggle between the oligarchic republicans and the house of Orange supported by the nobles, the clergy, and the common people—in a word, by all the classes which the republican aristocracy sought to exclude from political power.

In the time of Maurice the conflict was complicated by theological controversy associated with the name of Arminius, a professor in the University of Leyden. Maurice posed as a strict Calvinist, while the leading representatives of the republican party adopted the new views. Civil war nearly broke out, and Maurice taking advantage of the situation brought about the condemnation of Olden Barneveldt and Hugo Grotius, the father of modern International Law. To the everlasting disgrace of Maurice, Olden Barneveldt was executed in 1619, but Grotius fortunately succeeded in escaping. Maurice died in 1625 and was succeeded as Stadtholder by his half-brother, Frederick Henry, from whom the present Queen of the Netherlands is descended.

The expiry of the twelve years' truce with Spain nearly coincided with the outbreak of the Thirty Years War, and the United Provinces soon found themselves involved in that great conflict. They played no very prominent part in it, but when the Peace of Westphalia was made in 1648 their independence was formally acknowledged. Henceforward they formed a part neither of the possessions of the King of Spain nor of the Holy Roman Empire. During the continuance of the War, which coincided with the period of the struggle in England between the Crown and the Parliament, the Dutch went steadily on increasing their commerce and their maritime power, and became the great carriers of the world's trade. They drove the English traders out of the Eastern Archipelago, and the bitterness caused by their actions there and especially by the infamous massacre of Amboyna combined with maritime rivalry to estrange the former allies from one another for a period of half a century. The Navigation Laws passed in the time of the Commonwealth and renewed under Charles II. were specially directed against the Dutch carrying trade, and the hostility found expression in no less than three wars between England and the United Provinces. Ultimately, however, the danger of the growing power of France made the English and the Dutch draw together again. In 1668 the Triple Alliance between England, Holland and Sweden prevented Louis XIV. from annexing the Spanish Netherlands, and the third of the Anglo-Dutch Wars which began in 1672 was unpopular in England and was the outcome not of national feeling but of the tortuous foreign policy of Charles II., who by the secret treaty of Dover had promised to assist his cousin Louis XIV. in his schemes for territorial aggrandisement.

Louis XIV.'s attack upon Holland in 1672 had important consequences both for the character of the government of that country and for the future history of Europe. About twenty years before an important change had been made in the system of government. William, the son of Frederick Henry, who succeeded his father as Stadtholder in 1647, was an ambitious young man. He had married an English princess, the daughter of Charles I., and although the English monarchy was in straits at the time, his connection with one of the great monarchies of Europe made him anxious to increase his power. He tried by a *coup d'état* to overthrow the constitution and to seize Amsterdam, the centre of the opposition. He failed to capture Amsterdam, and before he could do anything more he died of fever. A few days after his death in 1650 his only son William, the future King of England, was born. The republican party now got the upper hand. It was agreed to leave the office of Stadtholder vacant, and to divide the powers of the Captain General and the Admiral General between the States General and the Provincial Estates. This really meant that the chief power in the country passed to the Estates of Holland, and John de Witt, the Grand Pensionary, a very able and patriotic man, became the real ruler of Holland. When Cromwell made peace with Holland in 1654, one of the conditions was that the House of Orange should be perpetually excluded from the Stadtholderate—a condition to which De Witt had no objection. When the Restoration took place in England, this Act of Exclusion was revoked but by the Perpetual Edict of 1668 it was declared that the civil and military powers were to be divided and that the same person could not be at once Stadtholder and Admiral and Captain General. It was arranged

that the young William should take command of the army at the age of twenty-two. The republican party, while strengthening the navy in which its power lay, deliberately kept the army weak. Hence when Louis XIV. declared war upon Holland in 1672, he met at first with no resistance. A wave of intense popular feeling put William at the head of affairs, and De Witt and his brother were brutally murdered by an infuriated mob in the Hague. William organised the defence of his country. The dykes were cut, Amsterdam was saved, and time was given for the other European powers to intervene.

The importance for Europe of this war was that it showed clearly the goal of Louis XIV.'s ambition and the means by which he intended to reach it. As clearly as the present war has revealed to the nations of the world the objects and the methods of German policy, so clearly did the attack on Holland reveal to the European powers of that time the fact that Louis XIV. had deliberately adopted a policy of aggression with a view to making France the dominating power in Europe. The Dutch had ventured to thwart his policy in the Spanish Netherlands, and the insolent race of traders and heretics must be crushed. He stood revealed as a menace to the rest of Europe, and it was that revelation that led to the formation of the great European alliances against him. For forty years the struggle went on, and during thirty of them William of Orange was the organiser of the opposition with which Louis met. The aggrandisement of France meant, he saw, the destruction of Holland, and cold and reserved as he might appear to be, he was consumed with an ardent love of his country and often defeated though he was in battle, he yet succeeded in his policy. The Treaty of Nimeguen in 1678 gave Louis not a single foot of Dutch soil, and the treaties of Ryswick in 1697 and of Utrecht in 1713 marked the failure of Louis' schemes and the exhaustion of France.

But though Louis failed to conquer Holland, its decline as a great power may be said to date from his attack upon it. For its protection against France, it became largely dependent upon other powers and especially upon England. One of the reasons which led William to put himself at the head of the revolt against his father-in-law, James II., was his recognition of the fact that the English alliance was of the utmost importance in the conflict with France. His constant complaint against the English was that their insular position made them fail to recognise the seriousness of the political situation on the continent, and possibly he would have sometimes resigned the English Crown had it not been for his love for Holland. After his death the alliance continued and during the war of the Spanish Succession the Duke of Marlborough was made Captain General of the Dutch Forces. By the Treaty of Ryswick the Dutch had been given the right of garrisoning certain fortresses in the frontier between France and the Spanish Netherlands, the region where such deadly fighting has been going on of late, but Louis XIV. had turned the Dutch troops out in a high-handed manner. By the Treaty of Utrecht, the Dutch regained these barrier fortresses though the Spanish Netherlands now passed into the possession of Austria.

On the death of William, the Stadtholderate was left vacant, and the office was not revived till 1747. During these years Holland usually followed the lead of England, and the maritime powers, as they were called, generally acted together until the rupture in 1780. When England, therefore, took part in the war of the Austrian Succession on the side of Maria Theresa, the Dutch in 1743 did the same. The French, however, proved victorious in the Netherlands, and a French invasion of Holland in 1747 led to political results similar to those of 1672. The Orange party came into power, and it was resolved to resuscitate the Stadtholdership. The representation of the Orange family at the time was another William, the son-in-law of George II. of England. He was appointed Stadtholder of all the seven provinces, and the office was declared to be hereditary in both the male and the female line. Thus the Stadtholdership became practically a hereditary constitutional monarchy. The old rivalry, however, between the two parties in the state did not die out. Forty years later in the reign of William V. civil war nearly broke out. The republicans encouraged by the French, who disliked the English connexion of the Orange family, sought to abolish the Stadtholdership again, but Frederich William II., the King of Prussia, whose sister was married to the Stadtholder, marched an army into Holland and restored the power of his brother-in-law. When the French Revolutionary War broke out the republicans at first welcomed the French. The Stadtholder fled to England in 1794, and next year the Batavian Republic was set up. The close connexion between France and Holland, which continued for the next twenty years, led to the capture by Great Britain of many of the Dutch colonies. Some of these were

restored when peace was made, but others, notably Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope, were finally retained.

The Dutch did not find their connexion with France an unmixed blessing in other ways also. Large sums of money were requisitioned from them and their interests were made entirely subservient to those of France. Once and again the constitution of the Batavian Republic was changed by Napoleon, and at last he transformed it into a kingdom for his brother Louis, the father of the future Emperor Napoleon III. Louis proved to have the interests of his subjects too much at heart, and opposed the various measures ordered by Napoleon, to the anger of the domineering Emperor. He could at last stand it no longer and abdicated, whereupon in order to carry out his continental policy the better, Napoleon declared Holland annexed to France. In 1815 the Congress of Vienna restored independence to Holland, united with it the Austrian Netherlands and placed on the throne of the new Kingdom, William I., the son of the late Stadtholder. To compensate the King for the loss of some family possessions in Germany, the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg was given to him. This personal union, which till 1866 gave a right to a representation in the Diet of the Germanic Confederation, continued till 1890 when on the accession of Queen Wilhelmina, Luxemburg passed to the representative of the Nassau family in the male line.

The union between the two parts of the Netherlands so long separated did not turn out a success. The lapse of time and the differences of their historical development had created two separate peoples differing from one another to a great extent in language, religion and economic interests. The opening of the Scheldt, which had been closed to commerce by the Dutch for two hundred years, indeed allowed Antwerp to resume its old position in Europe as a seaport of the first rank. But the growing prosperity of Belgium did not reconcile the people to the enforced union, for they felt that the Dutch regarded and treated their country as a conquered province. In 1830 a riot in Brussels developed into a revolution. The Great Powers intervened, and Belgium, by the Treaty of London in 1831, was recognised as an independent State. The Dutch refused to accept this treaty, but ultimately did so in 1839 when the definitive treaty was signed and half of Luxemburg was handed back to the King of Holland. William I. abdicated next year and was succeeded by his son William II., who in 1848—the year of revolution—gave Holland a more popular constitution than it had hitherto enjoyed. He died in 1849 and was succeeded by his son William III. who reigned till 1890. He had no son and was succeeded in that year by his little ten-year old daughter Queen Wilhelmina. In 1901 she married Prince Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and they have an only child, the Princess Juliana, who is the heiress to the throne.

The causes of the importance of Holland now-a-days are two in number. Its colonies and its geographical position make it an object of great interest to its powerful neighbour. Though a little country containing an area of only 13,000 square miles and a population of a little over five millions, it has a colonial empire measuring in extent over 780,000 square miles and containing more than 36,000,000 inhabitants. Java, which was given back by the British after being captured in the Napoleonic wars, is by itself sufficient to excite the envy of a country on the look-out for colonial expansion. Further, Holland holds the mouths of the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt, not to mention smaller streams, and it is still one of the great commercial countries of the world. It is not surprising, therefore, that the advocates of the expansion of Germany regard it as the manifest destiny of Holland to be absorbed into the German Empire. The Pan-Germanists speak of the Teutonic origin of the Dutch, and of their being originally part of the old German Empire, but that kind of argument has about as much relevancy as Napoleon's plea for the annexation of Holland on the ground that it was composed of soil brought down by rivers which rose in France. The old Dutch spirit of independence still remains, and it is certain that if they are attacked they will seek to defend themselves. It does not seem likely that they will be called on to do so. The Allies have no intention of emulating the example of Germany in violating the neutrality of small independent states, and though Germany would violate the neutrality of Holland without scruple if it would bring her any advantage, at present at all events it is to her interest that Holland should remain neutral. The Allies are, however, really fighting amongst other things for the independence of Holland, for it is certain that if the plans of Germany had not been frustrated by the present war, Holland would have been one of the first countries to fall a victim to the German ambition for a world-wide dominion.

AN UNCOMFORTABLE POSITION.

Evening Star, Washington.

H. M. QUEEN WILHELMINA OF HOLLAND.

MARS RUNNING AMOK.

When once he's loosed, who can hold him?

CHRISTIANITY AND WAR

BY

RT. REV. THE LORD BISHOP OF MADRAS.

A STATE of war between nations, especially between Christian nations, is on the face of it obviously a breach of Christian love. It is as unnatural a state of things as a quarrel or a fight between two brothers. It violates the fundamental principle of the brotherhood of man and the universal fatherhood of God. "The whole law," says S. Paul, "is fulfilled in one word, even in this, "Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself." "This is my Commandment," said our Lord Jesus Christ, "that ye love one another, even as I have loved you." No one could for a moment imagine that this law of love is fulfilled when nation goes to war against nation and when Christian brethren bend all their energies to kill one another. "Amid arms laws are silent" is an old saying. It is still truer that "amid arms love is silent."

A grave responsibility, then, rests upon the nation or nations that have provoked this terrible war, and we are rightly very sensitive on this point. Both England and Germany have been at great pains to justify their conduct to the conscience of the Christian world. The case for Great Britain has been set forth with great clearness in the speeches of Mr. Asquith, Mr. Lloyd George and Sir Edward Grey and in the White Book issued by the Foreign Office; and it has commended itself to the neutral nations of Europe and America. Our consciences are clear as to the justice of our cause. It is difficult in the heat of such a conflict as this to estimate nicely the exact force of the various motives which have influenced our people. Undoubtedly the British Empire, as a whole, felt from the first that its existence was at stake. They felt too that we were bound in honour to stand by France against aggression on the part of Germany. But from what I saw and heard and read myself in England during those fateful days at the beginning of August last, I am sure that what roused the moral indignation of the people of Great Britain and united them as one man in support of the declaration of war was the violation of the neutrality of Belgium by Germany. It was then clearly seen that England had to choose between war and the breaking of its word; between fighting Germany and allowing a weak and helpless nation, which it had promised to protect, to be trampled under foot in defiance of treaty obligations. It was this plain moral issue that appealed with overwhelming force to the conscience, not only of Great Britain but of the whole Empire and made war appear not merely justifiable but a sacred duty.

If ever war is justifiable for a Christian nation, we can feel with a good conscience that Great Britain was justified in drawing the sword in this war. The only question that can be raised is whether it is ever right, under any circumstances, for a Christian nation to go to war; and whether the appeal to arms, even in defence of right and justice, is not a relapse into Paganism and a denial of Christ.

Undoubtedly both the teaching and example of Jesus Christ can be appealed to in defence of this extreme view. Such a saying as "Resist not him that is evil: but whosoever smiteth thee on thy right cheek turn to him the other also," is not easy to reconcile with going to war. And apart from definite precepts, there is the weight of our Lord's example. He would not allow his disciples to use force in His defence. When, on the night of His arrest in the garden of Gethsemane, Peter drew his sword and smote a servant of the High Priest and cut off his ear, our Lord bade him put up again his sword into its sheath, "for," he said, "all that take the sword shall perish by the sword." In the same spirit as He stood before Pilate He disclaimed the use of force and declared that His servants could not fight because His Kingdom was essentially a spiritual Kingdom. "My Kingdom," He said, "is not of this world: if my Kingdom were of this world, then would my servants fight, that I should not be delivered to the Jews: but now is my kingdom not from hence." And this expressed the principle on which He consistently acted throughout His ministry. He possessed, we Christians believe, unlimited power. He could, as He said himself, have called upon His Heavenly Father at any moment during His arrest and trial, and His Father would have sent legions of angels to rescue Him from the hands of His enemies. But He consistently refused to use force and won the victory of truth over falsehood, of good over evil, of love over hatred, by suffering not by force, by defeat not by victory and in the end by death not by life. Never once in all His ministry do we read of His using His wonderful power to save Himself from suffering or to advance His cause. The taunt of His enemies as He hung on the Cross unconsciously expressed the essential principle of His life's work, "He saved others, himself He cannot save."

How, then, can we reconcile this teaching and

example of Christ with the action of Great Britain to-day as a Christian nation in going to war? How is it possible for Christian people in Great Britain to profess to be followers of Jesus Christ and at the same time to support and justify their country when it takes up arms, even in defence of a just cause? Belgium is oppressed and persecuted: so was Christ. The principles of truth and justice are at stake to-day; so they were when Christ was crucified.

The example of Jesus Christ raises the whole question, whether it is ever right for any Christian man or body of Christian men or for any Christian nation ever to use physical force in any shape or form even in order to maintain great moral principles. Before we can answer this question we must take a broad view of God's dealings with mankind in nature and history generally.

We see, then, that in the material universe the human race has been cradled and brought up under a strict discipline of physical force. Man is placed amid a vast system of physical forces governed by unalterable laws; obedience to these laws is enforced with relentless severity by the penalties of physical suffering and death, and through this stern discipline man's moral nature has been gradually trained and developed. He learns from it obedience, order, patience, self-control and respect for truth. To the question, therefore, does God ever use physical force to promote moral ends? the natural world supplies a conclusive answer. Believing, as a Christian does, that Nature is the work of God, that it is ruled, guided and inspired throughout by the Spirit of God, it is impossible to doubt that the use of force and the infliction of suffering and death form important parts of God's method for the moral training of mankind.

We come to the same conclusion, if we take a broad survey of the history of mankind. Man's social life from the family to the Empire is built up on the basis of physical force directed towards moral ends. The authority of parent over child, of the class or tribe or nation over its individual members, depends upon physical force. From top to bottom of society we see a system of law and order enforced ultimately by physical penalties of suffering and death. The whole moral nature of man is thus formed and developed by physical force, in society as well as in Nature, and apart from this discipline of force the moral nature of man would have no sphere in which to grow. A broad view, therefore, of human history and the growth of society, as a whole, certainly teaches us that the use of physical force for moral ends is not merely permissible but necessary for the moral welfare of mankind.

We come again to the same conclusion when we consider the ordinary familiar facts of life. No advocate of peace at any price, however ardent, has ever suggested that it was contrary to the highest principles of Christianity to punish children when they are naughty, or that the police should be abolished and a free hand given to the criminal classes. No one would maintain that, if a man saw a woman or a little child being brutally ill-treated by some savage ruffian, he would best fulfil the law of Christian love by running away or passing by on the other side. Cases of this kind, which are a *reductio ad absurdum* of the idea that the use of the force is under all circumstances inconsistent with the highest standard of Christian morality, could be multiplied indefinitely, and they illustrate the truth we learn from the general course of nature and human history, that the use of physical force directed towards moral ends is a necessary condition of the growth and development of man's moral nature. And war is only a particular application of this general principle. Nations in their dealings with one another may use force for immoral ends, just in the same way as the Government of a country may use its power tyrannically or a father may be despotic and arbitrary in the punishment of his children. But where a nation draws the sword in a just cause, as we firmly believe that England has done in this present war, its action is no more inconsistent with Christian principle than the action of a Civil Magistrate when he sentences a burglar to imprisonment or a murderer to death.

War, then, has its legitimate place in the moral education and progress of mankind as one of the means by which law and order is enforced among civilized nations. But on the other hand force is no remedy for the evil passions of mankind. It can restrain them and prevent them from flooding the world with savagery and barbarism. It can secure a sphere of law and order within which it is possible for the finer and nobler feelings of mankind to develop and have free play. But it cannot of itself produce these finer feelings, still less can it convert the baser metal of human nature into the gold of love and unselfishness. You cannot compel a man to love you by physical force. For that higher work some other power is needed, and it is precisely that other power that we find in the life, the teaching and the example of Jesus Christ. He came into the world to reveal to mankind the infinite love of God, a

truth that is only dimly revealed in the material universe :

> "Man trusted God is love indeed
> And love creation's final law ;
> But nature, red in tooth and claw
> With ravin, shrieked against his creed."

In the life, the sufferings, the death of Jesus Christ, this truth stands clearly revealed to the heart and conscience of mankind. He came into the world to reconcile man to God, to win back to God hearts that had been alienated from his love. This supreme work of love could not possibly be done by force. It could only be done by humility, by suffering, by death. The love of man could only be won by the revelation of the self-sacrificing love of God. We can see, then, why Jesus Christ steadfastly refused to use physical force for the fulfilment of His purpose. To have used force to save His life or even to save Himself from suffering would have marred the perfection of His work. But it is equally true that His work was carried out within that orderly framework of civilized life which the rightful use of physical force secures. And what is true of the life and work of Jesus Christ, is true of the life and work of His followers to-day. It demands this orderly framework of civilized life which must be secured by force and, when necessary, by war. But it can only be accomplished by those higher qualities of love, sympathy and sacrifice, which are taught us by the Spirit of Christ. Men are converted from lust and ambition, envy and hatred, not by force, but by unselfishness and love.

The conclusion might seem to be, that the majority of men must follow the law of nature and maintain law and order, while only a few follow the footsteps of Christ and promote love and brotherhood. But that is not true. The father who punishes his child, also wins his affection by unselfish love: the Magistrate who punishes the criminal, can still work like Christ for his conversion; the soldier who fights against the enemies of his country in the cause of justice, can yet win their respect and even their love by his self-sacrifice and humanity. Many stories have been told on both sides of Christian love and self-sacrifice on the battlefield. It is one of the strange paradoxes of human life that nowhere do we find more splendid examples of unselfishness, kindness and forgiveness of enemies than we find in war.

War, then, is not to be regarded simply as a relapse into paganism and savagery. It comes indeed of an un-Christian spirit in the world. It is made necessary by the vices of mankind. But it is, for all that, part of that great system of moral discipline by which God is gradually educating mankind for His Kingdom of eternal love. It has its terrible evils, but so has peace. In his lecture on War in the "Crown of Wild Olive," Ruskin contrasts the moral influence of peace and war, by no means in favour of peace.

'We talk of peace and learning,' he writes, 'and of peace and plenty, and of peace and civilisation ; but I found that those were not the words which the Muse of History coupled together: that, on her lips, the words were—peace and sensuality—peace and selfishness—peace and death. I found, in brief, that all great nations learned their truth of word, and strength of thought, in war; that they were nourished in war, and wasted by peace; taught by war, and deceived by peace ; trained by war, and betrayed by peace: in a word, that they were born in war, and expired in peace.'

This may be one sided and exaggerated, but at any rate there is enough truth in it to warn us against taking it for granted that peace is necessarily more Christian than war. It is true that if the principles of Christianity universally prevailed in the world, if all men and women, or even the large majority of them, were true and sincere followers of Jesus Christ, wars would cease; but it is also true that where the principles of Christianity are not universally accepted and acted upon, peace becomes just as un-Christian as war.

Sankara's Select Works

Sanskrit Text and English Translation.

BY MR. S. VENKATARAMANAN, B.A.

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PREFACE.—The main object of this publication is to present, in simple English, some of the works of Sri Sankaracharya in which he tried to expound, in a popular style, the philosophy of the non-dualistic Vedanta of which he was the well-known founder. To those that have had no training in metaphysics or dialectics and have neither the leisure nor the capacity to read the original standard works of Sankara, a publication of this kind should be specially helpful for a proper understanding of the broad outline of Sankara's philosophy of non-dualism.

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HOSPITAL SHIPS

BY

CAPT. A. J. H. RUSSELL, I.M.S.

BRITAIN being the greatest maritime power of the world and especially as she is now waging war in four continents, it is very essential that she should have a considerable number of Hospital Ships.

In an overseas-war one Hospital Ship is mobilised for each division of the field army. Each is equipped for 220 beds including 20 beds for officers. Subject to sea transport arrangements the control of Hospital Ships rests with the Director of Medical Services and his representative on the lines of communications. It is obvious, however, that in the circumstances of the present war there could be no such restriction as to numbers.

India's sons have not been the last to recognise the necessity of these ships, for two completely equipped vessels have been fitted out—one in Madras and one in Bombay—and are now engaged in the work of the transfer of wounded and sick from the seats of warfare.

It is customary, on the outbreak of war, to "convert" suitable passenger steamers into these floating Hospitals, as only one or two are borne on the active list in time of peace. This transformation was effected in Madras on the B. I. S. S. "Tanda," while in Bombay the Canadian Pacific Railway Company's S. S. "Empress of India" was simil-rly dealt with and it is not too much to say that no better equipped Hospital Ships than the H. S. "Madras" and the H. S. "Loyalty" are anywhere to be found. The Hospitalship *Madras* owes its origin to H. E. Lord Pentland, Governor of Madras, and its success has been chiefly due to the munificent generosity of the Zemindars and Ruling Chiefs of Southern India, prominent among whom are the Maharajah of Travancore, the Rajahs of Cochin, Venkatagiri, Bobbili, Vizianagaram, Pittapuram and Parlakimidi. The general public of the Presidency also responded to His Excellency's appeal in a very generous fashion.

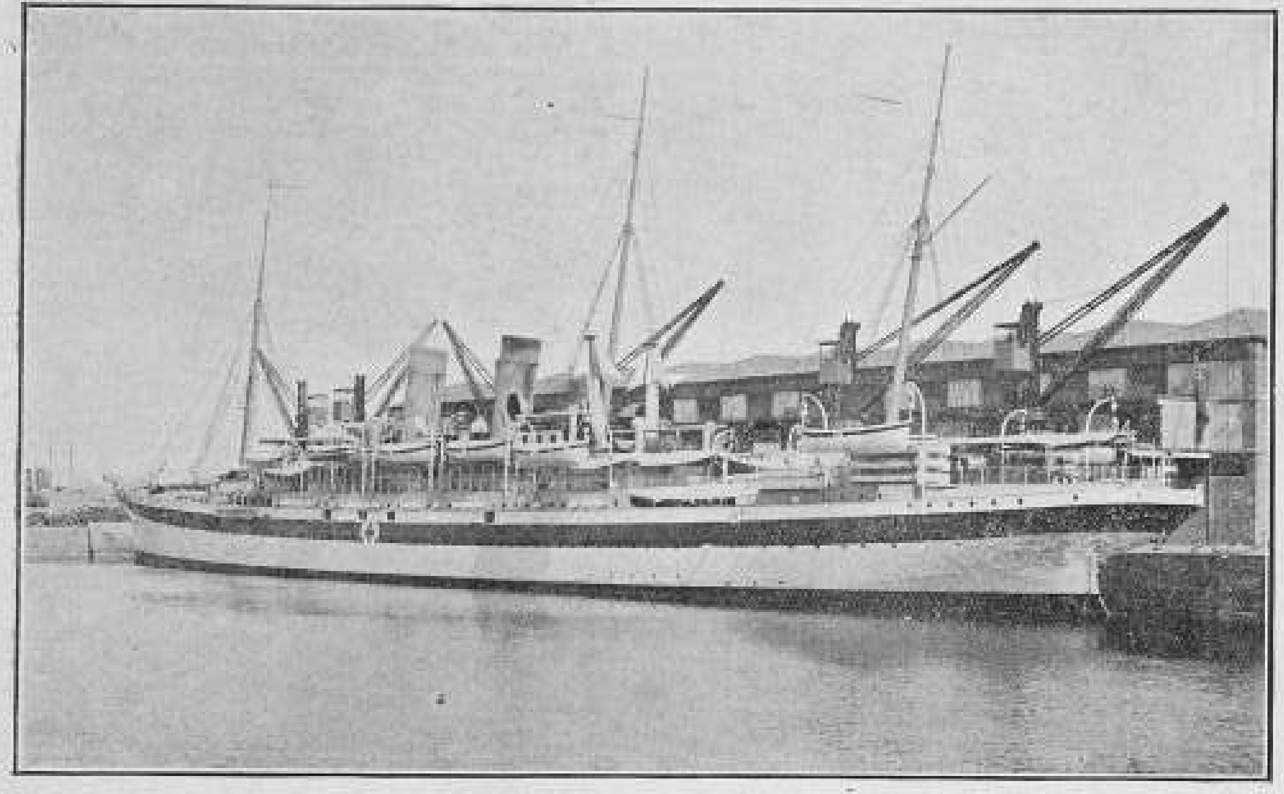
The Hospital Ship "Loyalty" has been presented to the Government by the Princes and Chiefs of India; and His Highness the Maharaja of Gwalior has made himself responsible for all the arrangements and for the financing of the ship. Almost all the Indian Princes have associated themselves with the Maharaja Scindia in this mission of mercy: and among those who immediately intimated their desire to share in bearing the cost of this noble undertaking may be mentioned, the Chiefs of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Rewah, Hyderabad, Bhopal, Sitaman, Jhabua, Dhar, Datia, Rutlam, Indore, Sailana, Rajgarh, Barwani, Kashmir, Darbhanga, Rampur, Dewas (S. B.), Dewast (J. B.), Raghogarh, Alirajpur, Seket, Burdwan, Benares, Panna and Dholpur.

The first step in the transformation is the clearing of the main deck of all partitions and divisions. In the case of the S. S. "Tanda," this was easily done and her main deck was converted into a large ward for Indian sepoys, rows of bedsteads with swinging cots having been fixed to the deck. Other wards were arranged for Indian officers, European soldiers and European officers. The total number of sick and wounded that can be accommodated is 300 but arrangements have been made by which an additional 100 can be taken on board, should necessity arise. Cabins for the medical and nursing staffs were arranged for in the space reserved for first class passengers.

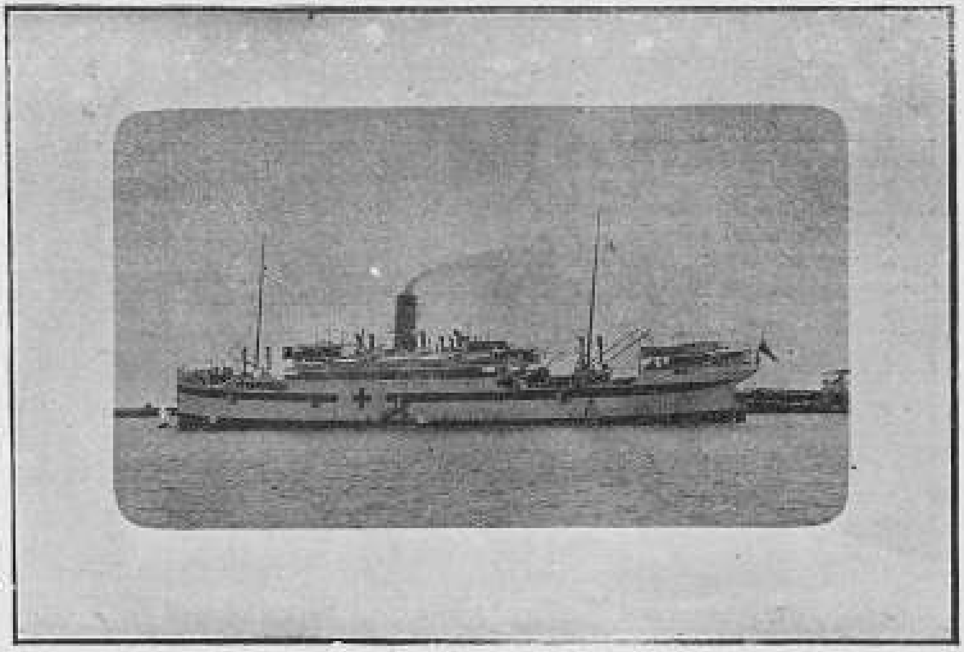
In a hospital which is to sail the seas with wounded, it is necessary that all equipments should be complete and self-contained. An operating room is of the greatest importance and this should be situated in the centre of the ship, so that the motion of the vessel may be felt as little as possible. The dispensary, the X-ray room, the bacteriological laboratory, the sterilising room and the laundry are all indispensable adjuncts. It may be noted that difficulties usually arise in the laundry, as a large quantity of linen is requird daily and the drying of clothes is effected only with great trouble. This is especially the case when the ship is passing through temperate zones. For Indian troops a series of kitchens must be provided with cooks belonging to the different castes and races.

The medical staff of a hospital ship usually consists of five commissioned officers, this number, however, varying with the number of beds. It

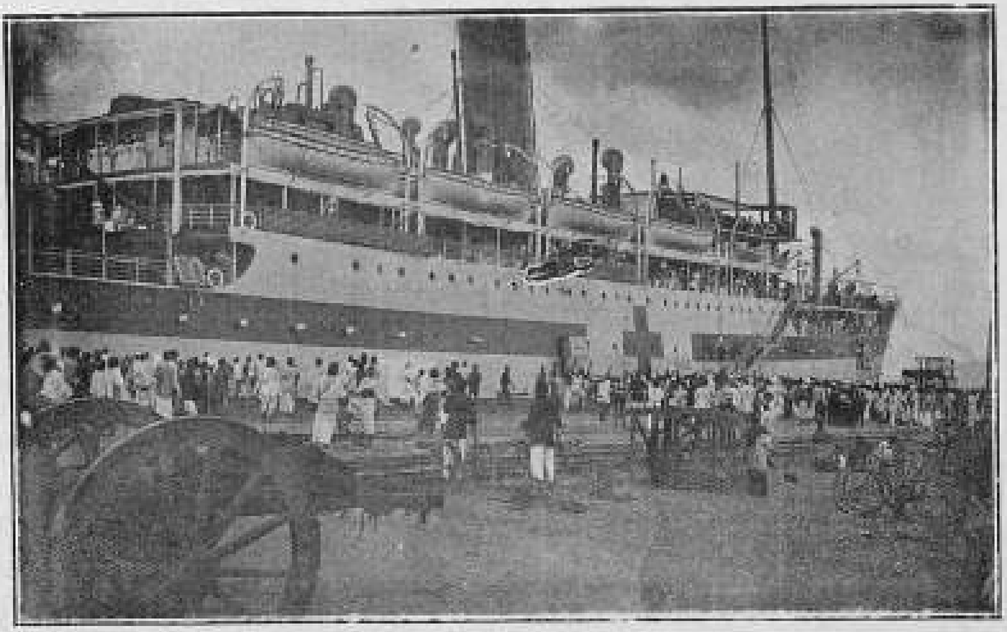
THE *MADRAS* HOSPITAL SHIP GROUP.



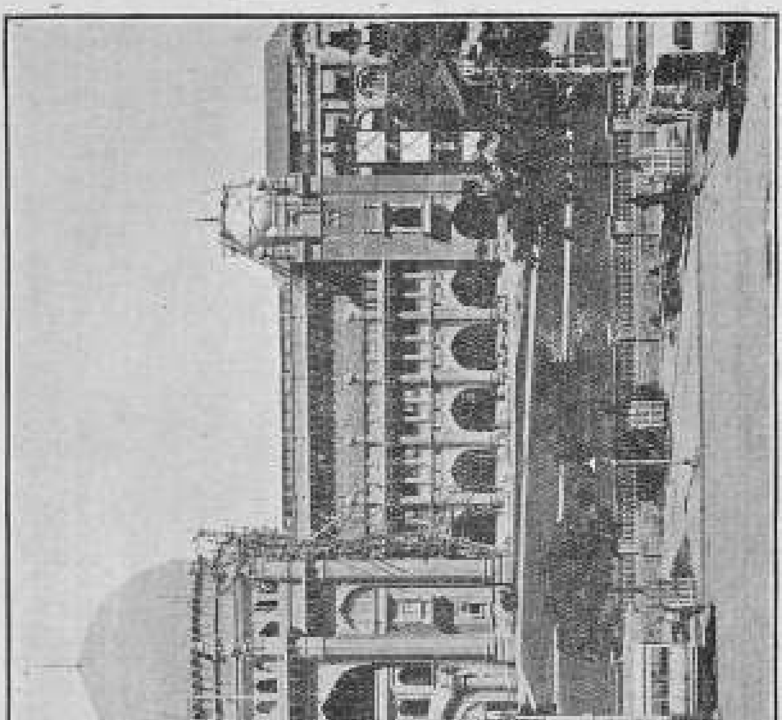
THE HOSPITAL SHIP *LOYALTY*.



THE HOSPITAL SHIP *MADRAS*, (FULL VIEW.)



THE HOSPITAL SHIP *MADRAS*, (¾ VIEW.)



THE LADY HARDINGE WAR HOSPITAL, BOMBAY.

addition to these, assistant-surgeons are placed in charge of the X-Ray room and bacteriological laboratory while additional assistant-surgeons and sub-assistant-surgeons are of course necessary for general duty. Perhaps as important as these is the nursing staff which varies in strength according to the size of the ship. The Hospital Ship "Madras" has 1 matron superintendent and 8 nurses for 300-400 beds.

Hospital Ships must be distinguished by certain marks. All military Hospital ships must be painted white with a horizontal band of green, while all other hospital ships carry a red horizontal band. The S. S. "Tanda" did not present a very picturesque appearance on her arrival at Madras, but as the Hospital-ship "Madras", her greyish white hull showed up the horizontal red band and large red crosses on her sides in striking relief. The large red crosses must be lit up at night, this being effected by means of a search light whose beams are thrown down on to the side of the ship. This prevents belligerent ships from attacking or torpedoing what otherwise might be taken as an enemy's ship.

The Red Cross Flag must be displayed along with the national flag, this being the distinctive emblem adopted at the Geneva Convention by the Powers. Turkey, however, uses a red crescent in place of the Red Cross. Under the recent Hague Convention various amendments to the old Geneva Convention have been ratified by the great Powers. It is of interest to note that British sailors have only been satisfying these Conventions when they endeavoured to collect the wounded Germans after the Heligoland fight. All wounded and sick in Hospital ships are to be looked on as neutrals and the medical and nursing staffs in charge as well as the surgical equipment are also to be treated as strictly neutral. In other words, the staff of a hospital ship cannot be made prisoners of war.

Under the Hague Convention called the Convention for the adaptation to maritime warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention, hospital ships are divided into three classes: (1) Military Hospital-ships, (2) Hospital-ships equipped by private individuals or societies belonging to the belligerent states and (3) Hospital ships equipped by private neutral individuals or neutral relief societies. To secure the privilege of neutrality, however, in each case, it is necessary to send to the enemy before they are brought into use, the names of all ships intended for treatment and transfer of the sick and wounded. Hospital ships falling under classes 2 and 3 must also carry a certificate "declaring that they had been under the control and supervision of the Government authorities while fitting out and on final departure."

It is understood, of course, that these Hospital ships must not be used for any military purpose e.g. carrying ammunition or guns. On the other hand, "while the belligerents should be careful not to fire or attack a Hospital ship, they cannot be expected to desist from warlike operations they are carrying on, because a Hospital ship gets involved in them."

In addition to the ships India has also provided a special hospital to which the sick and wounded are removed immediately the Hospital Ships arrive in Bombay. This hospital bears the name of The Lady Hardinge War Hospital. Of course there are, in addition, several hospitals both in Bombay and in the other Presidencies and Provinces of the Empire, set apart exclusively for the accommodation of the sick and the wounded. The Bombay branch of the St. John Ambulance Brigade is entrusted with the task of removing the wounded from the ships to the Lady Hardinge War Hospital and in the case of those going out of Bombay the women's branch of the Imperial Relief Fund has fitted up special ambulance trains. It is common knowledge that several private individuals have placed their motors and carriages at the disposal of the St. John Ambulance Brigade and these, not less than other subscribers, have responded splendidly to the needs of those who have suffered in the Empire's cause.

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THE WAR AND THE PENINSULA

BY

PROF. K. C. MACARTNEY, M.A.

MANY people, whose business or pleasure is so exacting as to make it difficult for them to keep up by their reading with current politics in countries outside the Empire, are wondering why the neutral nations of Europe should be watching the present struggle with such tense anxiety. It is the purpose of the present article to remind them of certain facts relating to Spain and Portugal, which may help to throw some light on the subject. We will begin with Portugal, as that country stands more definitely committed to take action than does Spain at the present time.

Very early in August, Portugal announced her intention of adhering strictly to the terms of her ancient alliance with England and proceeded to set her house in order in accordance with that declaration. Before we come to discuss her reasons for this act, it is well to make ourselves quite certain of what it means. We all know that we are allied to Japan by treaty, and the present war has converted the *entente* with France and Russia into a *de facto* alliance, but the alliance referred to by the Portuguese Republic is not quite of this nature. It consists of a long-standing friendship which has in the past been of considerable advantage to both sides, and may yet be of very real service to them.

It is customary to date the Anglo-Portuguese friendship from the assistance given by John of Gaunt, the father of Henry IV. of England, to the Portuguese during the siege of Lisbon, which up till then had been in the hands of the Moors. This was in the latter half of the 14th century. In the 16th century that strangely romantic figure, Sir Thomas Stukely, next to Raleigh, the most typical of all Elizabethan Englishmen, was killed with many other English gentlemen while fighting on the side of the Portuguese King at the disastrous battle of Alcazar in North Africa. In the 17th century charles II. married Catherine of Braganza, and received as her dowry Tangier in Africa and Bombay in India, which formed the first personal link between this country and the British Crown. In the 18th century England once more found herself in armed alliance with Portugal in the war which eventually drove Napoleon out of the Peninsula. At this time a commercial treaty was concluded between the two countries, which had the effect in England of supplanting the French wines by those of Portugal. This is not the only commercial fruit of the long-standing friendship, but it is the best known one.

During the 19th century relations between the two countries received much strength from the relationship between the two ruling houses. Everyone will remember that the first visit paid by King Edward to a foreign Court was to his cousin, King Charles of Portugal. It is no secret that the two sovereigns had a deep personal regard for one another, which showed itself strikingly in King Edward's solicitude for the interests of King Manoel after his father's tragic death.

Quite apart from the warm friendship of the Rulers, however, England performed one great service to Portugal during this period. Portuguese power had, from causes which it is not our present purpose to discuss, been growing gradually weaker, but she had not lost her Colonial Empire altogether. This is always a dangerous position for a weak State, and the growth of Prussian Colonial ambitions did not make it any safer. In certain cases Portugal tried to sell her Colonies to Great Britain, but the English Government, for reasons which seemed to them at the time to be sufficient, refused to buy. This, to some extent no doubt, suggested and encouraged the German idea of securing for Germany the right of pre-emption over the Portuguese Colonies. This means that Germany has the right, if she can get her claim accepted, to the first refusal of any of the Portuguese Colonies which may be for sale. This right has never been conceded by England or Portugal, though England would probably not have attempted to stop a sale to Germany in which Portugal was a perfectly free and satisfied party, the evil in the German claim lies in the fact that it would be impossible for Portugal to resist German force, if she stood alone in the matter. The "buying" would most certainly have become the merest sham, Germany would have had it in her power to fix the price, if indeed any price were paid at all. Even while this talk of pre-emption was going on, Germany, if report speaks true, was making proposals to England to partition the Portuguese Colonies between them, as Poland had twice been divided, and in this

case there was no talk of payment to Portugal. Whether or not these reports were actually true hardly matters, they are believed to-day in Portugal. There it is believed by everyone, royalist and republican alike, that England alone prevented action being taken with this object in view after the Revolution. This goes far to explain Portugal's attitude towards Germany, for this reason, if for no other, she must cling to the English connection.

There are, however, other weighty considerations which all tend in the same direction. It hardly matters in the New World if one of the small Republics has a Revolution, but in sober Europe a Revolution is a disturbing occurrence. The Portuguese Revolution was attended by many circumstances, which shocked exceedingly a decorous Europe, though they would hardly have distressed the South American States. One king and his eldest son had been murdered; his youthful successor was driven from the Throne by the aid of artillery; after the king, fell the Church under most distressing circumstances; the Republic seemed to be supporting itself by means of secret agents and to be avoiding a frank appeal to the nation; it was evident that many people were opposed to the new regime even to the point of resisting it in arms; finally the treatment of political prisoners left very much to be desired. It is not our business to discuss these facts or their causes, very often the actions of a political faction are the results of causes for which they are only partly responsible, but the judgment of the world is very greatly influenced by facts, and rightly so, and these facts shocked Europe.

In this troublous time the sheet-anchor of the Republic was the alliance between England and Portugal, to which it expressed its adherence almost before it was fully constituted. A new regime is hardly respectable in Europe, but the next best thing to being respectable, for States as for individuals is to claim connection with others of unassailable respectability; the United States is Great Britain's only rival in this particular virtue, and Portuguese Republicans knew this well.

We emphasize this point because it gives us the second compelling reason for Portuguese intervention at this moment. So far the Republic has not succeeded in freeing itself from the stigma attached to its inception, it is still rather in the shade, and people look askance at it. If, however, it could appear in a war of this kind as the ally of the most progressive and enlightened nations of Europe, fighting for the sacred causes of national freedom and international probity, the return to the European family would be far easier. We have already emphasized the dangers of isolation for weak States with Colonial possessions.

There is a third point of view from which the Republican Government are bound to look at the matter. They know, and all the world knows, that the Portuguese nation is divided into fiercely antagonistic factions. No Government can be stable under such circumstances. There is probably only one thing which could unite all parties, and that is the danger of losing the Colonies. The Government may well feel that if the nation were united on this issue, they might learn to become more united on others, and in any case it would gain time.

They need have no scruple about raising the cry 'the Colonies are in danger.' Germany knows perfectly well the feeling aroused against her in Portugal. Were she victorious, Portugal would not be allowed to keep her Colonies for long. To Germany a World-Empire means no less than the command of the habitable globe. The victory of the allies, on the other hand, will make the external position of Portugal reasonably secure and she might easily enhance her prestige by becoming a partner in a successful war.

This analysis of the possible motives for Portuguese intervention in the war may seem a little cold, but it must be remembered that Portugal is not directly concerned in the immediate causes of the War, as is evidently felt by a section of the people, for the Republicans are finding it somewhat difficult to form a stable Government. Yet though the motives here suggested are less disinterested than those which forced the British Empire into the War, they are not of the nature to make ashamed the patriotic Portuguese of sincere Republican convictions. It must be the highest wish of such a person for the present to unite Portugal under the Republican flag, and for the future to save her from dismemberment. Also we must not suppose that the motives of international probity and the protection of the weak by the strong, which are dominating in Great Britain, France and Russia, are not also strongly operative among thoughtful people in Portugal.

So far we have assumed the probability of the Portuguese intervention on the side of Great Britain. The advantages which would accrue to the Allies from such a development may now be glanced at. In the first place, Portugal is not a great military state, but neither was Belgium before this war. There is little doubt that if well led and disciplined, the Portuguese soldier

would give a good account of himself, though a recent Revolution is not a good training for discipline and self-restraint. Portugal might put into the field several thousand men, who could be very useful even now as second line troops and would rapidly improve under the stimulus of actual war conditions. The principal advantage gained, however, would be the closing of the Portuguese ports to the enemy's shipping of all kinds; two months ago it was reported that some seventy German merchantmen had taken refuge in these ports, and on the other hand these harbours would be open without restriction to the Allied Powers; under quite conceivable circumstances this might be of extreme value to them.

SPAIN.

When we turn from Portugal to Spain, we are confronted with a far more complicated problem. Without much advertisement, Spain has in our time crept gradually back into a position, which is full of promise for her future greatness. Her close proximity to Portugal and the memory of a former possession of that country would of themselves be sufficient to cause some jealousy and suspicion between them. The sudden Revolution and the attack upon the Church which followed it, could only alienate the countries still further, for Spain is much troubled with Republican agitators, and is of all the countries of Europe still the 'most Catholic.' Had no other influences been at work, these would have been sufficient to bend the sympathies of Spain in the opposite direction from those of Portugal. But other pressure has also been brought to bear tending in the same direction. When Germany began to see that she dare not attack France over Morocco, she hoped to attain her end by encouraging Spanish ambitions in the same quarter. Many students of contemporary European politics will remember that the friction resulting from these Teutonic efforts was so great, that it necessitated a special mission by the French Foreign Minister of the day to Madrid to put matters straight. The result was an agreement instead of a war between the two nations. Still there was some bitterness left behind in Spain, and the religious susceptibilities of the people were offended by the attitude of the French Republic towards the Holy See. France, England and Russia are all outside that communion, while Austria is, next to Spain, its most devoted supporter. These things count for much.

On the other side we have to place the influence of the Court. No foreign Prince is so popular in England as King Alfonso, and he is hardly, if at all, less popular in France. He has shown his friendship for both these countries on his frequent visits to them. His Queen is an English Princess, who, though she has cousins fighting for Germany, has already lost one brother killed in action while fighting for the freedom of Belgium. There can be no doubt upon which side the Royal sympathies lie.

In any case Spain would not wantonly declare war upon her nearest neighbours. She has nothing to gain and much to lose by doing so, for ultimately their cause is hers, as it is that of every State which desires to be delivered from the crushing burden of an all-consuming militarism. Spain will almost certainly remain neutral throughout the War, unless she is forced to take up arms in self-defence, a contingency which need not now be seriously considered.

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Russia: Its Political and Social Development

BY PROFESSOR S. J. CRAWFORD.

(MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.)

It is one of the ironies of history that Russia and Servia should find themselves in the year of grace 1915 leagued with France, Belgium and England against the hereditary enemies of the Slav—the German and the Nomad. The Austrian Empire includes a large number of Slavs, who are forced against their will to fight against their kinsmen, but the real enemies of the great Slav Power are the Germans, the Hungarians and the Turks, the first representing the descendants of the northern tribes who whether as Vikings or in the more specious but scarcely less barbarous guise of military orders warred century after century against the progress of the Slav, while the Hungarians and the Turks are the last relics in Europe of the Nomads, who were for ages the bane of Western civilization.

Some races like some individuals seem to have been born for martyrdom. Endowed with great and noble qualities which excite feelings of admiration and hope for the future, it has been their lot to suffer and to die, while other peoples less gifted have taken the position these might have been expected to fill. Such has been the lot of the Slavs. Until comparatively recent times they have been the sport of a cruel destiny. A well-known historian has laid down the dictum that "a people is and remains what its land of origin has made it."* Of no people is this truer than of the Slavs. Just as the mounted Nomad is the son and product of the arid salt-deserts, the Slav is the product of the marsh. The original home of the Slav was Polesie—a district about half as large as England, triangular in shape with the towns of Brest-Litovsk, Mohiles and Kiev forming the apices. The whole district was once a lake and even now consists mainly of marshland formed by the river Pripet. This vast extent of marshland had a desolating effect on its inhabitants. Intercourse was difficult, well-nigh impossible, except when winter gave stability to the treacherous quagmires. It was easier for the Vikings to traverse the network of waters which extend from the Baltic to the Caspian than for the Slavs on one side of the marsh to visit their neighbours on the other. The ancient Slavs therefore lived in isolated communities lacking both political and social unity. "Mauricius"* testifies that they were "kingless and hostile to one another and never cared to form bands." The historian Procopius tells us "that they were not ruled by one man but lived from the earliest times in 'democracy' and so they deliberated in common on all their affairs—good and bad." Not only did their marshy home militate against political and social cohesion but it also sapped their vitality, and stunted the growth of men, cattle and vegetation, depriving its inhabitants of physical force and reducing them to the humblest kind of subsistence. The reeds and rushes of the marsh were unsuitable food for cattle; the all-pervading marsh rendered agriculture on a large scale impossible, so that the inhabitants were reduced to living mainly by hunting, fishing, pig-rearing and the cultivation of manna-grass,—the only kind of grain which flourished in that unhealthy region.

Many of the characteristics of the primitive Slav survive to this day in the inhabitant of White Russia. "The White Russian is above all a fisherman and a husbandman. Void of all enterprise he leaves others to trade with the fruits of his labour and they drain him to the last farthing. Drunkenness is his only hateful quality; otherwise he has attractive traits. He is thrifty almost to avarice in the management of his affairs, and shows an endurance that harmonises little with his slender physique. He is in no way aggressive, but rather dreamy, confiding, not at all malicious, good-tempered, not without dignity, very hospitable, and a lover of amusement. The dance, the song and music are his natural elements. On summer evenings the village youths assemble in the streets and afterwards promenade the whole night long singing in chorus

* Peisker—*Cambridge Medieval History* II, page 426.

* Quoted by Peisker, l. c. page 420.

their melancholy lyric songs."* In Procopius we read that the ancient Slavs were not malignant nor villainous, but harmless and naive; while the German chronicler, Adam of Bremen, (†1075) tells us that there was no more hospitable and kindly people than the Slavs of Pomerania.

Such was the people which found itself between an upper and nether millstone, and whose early history is one long tale of martyrdom. On the east and south they were exposed to the mounted Nomads of the steppes, and on the west and north they had to face the full impact of the Germanic on-rush. "The Slav and the mounted Nomad," says Peisker, "are diametrical extremes, and the murderous irony of fate made them neighbours. The one was a soft anvil, the other a hammer hard as steel. A second not less weighty hammer, the Germans, came into play, and the anvil was beaten flat."

The greatest possible contrast exists between the expansion of the Slav and the Germanic *Völkerwanderung* (Wandering of the Nations); the Germanic expansion burst like a storm on the peoples of the south; the expansion of the Slavs may be compared rather to the on-coming of the tide, silent, almost unnoticeable, but irresistible and mighty in its results. The two chief enemies of the Slav were the Nomads and the Germans. It has been the task of the Slavs to act as a buffer state, and to save Europe from the barbarians of the Eastern Steppes at the price of its own development. Had it not been for the Nomads, Russia might to-day have stood in the van of European progress. "Her network of rivers, as if created for primitive commerce, is the most magnificent on the face of the earth, and in spite of its inhospitable climate it would certainly have nurtured the highest civilization had not its southern entrances been situated in the grass steppe by the Black and Caspian Seas, the domain of the mounted Nomads, the arch-enemies and stiflers of civilisation." Storm after storm of these Nomads swept over the nascent civilisation of early Slavonia leaving death and desolation in its train. The Greek colonies planted among the Scythians of the coasts of the Black Sea and Sea of Azov perished in the wild raids of the second century B.C., and with them the seeds of civilization. The Goths established in the third and fourth centuries A.D., a domination which lasted two hundred years; but in 375 the Goths fell before the Huns, and the Slavs were left to face for fourteen centuries the bands of Nomads emanating from that *officina gentium*, Central Asia. Huns, Bulgars, Avars, Chazars, Magyars, Patzinaks, Cumans and Mongols appeared in succession, one horde overthrowing another, but all combining to oppress the wretched Slav and to make the name of Slav (properly Slovene, a name which probably meant "an inhabitant of Slovy") synonymous among the peoples of Europe and Western Asia, with the word 'slave.'

Nor were the Nomads alone in making 'slaves' of the Slavs; the Vikings of the Northlands made war on them with ships. The Viking was not only a pirate and a warrior but was also a trader. Trading settlements of the Vikings abounded in Northern Russia. Among the chief articles of their trade were slaves. The Vikings fell upon the inhabitants and carried them off to the distant Volga and the Nearer East for sale. These Vikings were called the *Ros*—a name which meant the 'seafarers.' This word of Scandinavian origin became the name of the greatest of the Slav kingdoms—Russia.

Though the Vikings or Varangians, as they were also called, enslaved the Slavs, they were not cruel masters. So we find that in the ninth century the Slavs actually put themselves under the protection of these northern pirates. The Pseudo-Nestor Chronicle relates under the date 859 A.D. "The Slavs drove the Varangians over sea, and began to govern themselves, and there was no justice among them, and clan rose against clan" . . . . "and they said to each other: Let us seek for a prince who can reign over us and judge what is right. And they went over the sea to the Varangians, to Russ, for so were these Varangians called . . . . They said to Russ: 'Our land is large and rich, but there is no order in it; come ye and reign over us.' And three brothers were these with their whole clan, and they took with them all the Russ (*i.e.*, the Scandinavian Russ not the later Slavonic Russians, who got their name from the Russ.), and they came at first to the Sloviens and built the town of Ladoga, and the eldest Rurik settled in Ladoga . . . . . . and the Russian land got its name from these Varangians."* Thus the Norman kingdom of Russia was founded just about two hundred years before the Norman conquest of England.

By the strong bulwark thus erected by the Normans at the expense of the Slavs, the attacks

* Peisker: *The Expansion of the Slavs*, l. c. page 424.

* Quoted by Peisker l. c. page 434.

of the Tatars and other Nomads were checked, and the Germans and other Western nations were enabled to develop their culture unchecked by the devastating inroads of these marauders.

Rurik concentrated his strength by building fortresses. His successor Oleg extended his power at the expense of the souther Tatars and by establishing his capital at Kiev, commanded the Dnieper and the road to the Black Sea. Under Vlademir (980-1015), the Rus became Christian and were received into the Greek Orthodox Church, an event fraught with great consequences, since it bound Russia closely to the Eastern Empire, and placed a barrier between the Russians and Poles, who were reconverted by the Roman Church under Boleslaus (992-1025) 'in order that they might obtain the protection of the Holy See against the Germans, who were pressing eastwards'. Her Orthodoxy accentuated the isolation of Russia, which owing to its position was already out of the ordinary path of European development.

The history of medieval Russia is one long story of constant struggle against the Nomad hordes, which threatened its very existence from the east and south, the powerful kingdom of Poland ever jealous of any increase in power on the part of its Muscovite neighbours on the east, and the tendencies towards decentralisation and faction within.

Another stage in Russian history began with the accession of Ivan the Terrible (1534-84). Ivan was the first Russian sovereign to invent and consistently act up to a regular theory of autocracy, focussed in the person of the Tsar. He was the regenerator of old Muscovy. Surrounding himself with the most capable men he could find, he set himself to break the power of the Tatars, and to extend his empire to the Volga. The Crimea was invaded and partially subjugated, and the power of the Russian nobles broken. He was determined that there should be no power in Russia except the Tsar. Yet in spite of his genius and his foresight, his reign left Russia worse off than he found it. His cruelty outraged the rights of humanity and stimulated the worst elements in the people. Politically he showed wonderful foresight and anticipated some of the ideals of Peter the Great. He was very popular with the lower and middle classes, and was the first Tsar to summon and take the advice of a popular assembly. Yet his reign was followed by a period of terrible confusion, during which the Russian State almost disappeared.

A better order of things dawned for Russia with the accession of the Romanovs in the person of Michael Romanov, 1613. "It is not too much to say that the Renaissance of Russia dates from the quinquennium (1613-1618) during which the great men of the realm devoted themselves to the patriotic duty of guiding the footsteps of their young Tsar, and rallying the recuperative elements of the nation round the newly established throne. A new spirit of patriotism pervaded the people. Local and personal aims were abandoned, and the people united in placing themselves under an autocracy which seemed to promise the best government for their Fatherland." Russia was in a desperate condition. The Swedes were in possession of their Baltic Provinces as well as the great emporium of Nijni-Novgorod; the Poles held Smolensk and the West; the Cossacks were trying to establish a kingdom for themselves on the Volga; and hordes of savage Tatars swarmed burning, outraging and pillaging in every direction. Thanks to the genius and energies of the young king, these dangers were all surmounted and the power of Russia consolidated at the expense of her foes. Poland her greatest rival sank gradually during the 17th century, while Russia slowly but surely grew in strength and prosperity.

Owing to their past, the Russians were far behind the rest of Europe in civilisation. "An iron-bound conservatism, the consequence of a gross ignorance due again to centuries of isolation from the civilised West, fettered every movement, every thought of the national life. Perpetual tutelage and an absolute want of culture were almost invincible obstacles to anything like the development of a free and healthy social life in Muscovy, while the continual increase of public burdens, and the repression of all popular amusements by the Greek Church, drove the people to seek relief from the grinding monotony of life in habitual drunkenness and the grossest sensuality."* This was the result of centuries of oppression on a people possessing many noble qualities which, if developed, would have placed them among the foremost of the nations of Europe in the 17th century. It was from a people in this condition that Peter the Great set himself to build that new Russia, which has become the Russia of to-day.

Peter the Great ascended the throne in 1689 and died in 1725. On his accession he found the Empire suffering from evils of every kind—"dis-

* Bain: *Slavonic Europe*, page 257-59, l. c. page 326,

sipation of energy, dislike of co-operation, repudiation of responsibility, lack of initiative, the tyranny of the family, the insignificance of the individual." To remove these was a Herculean task, but the Emperor did not shrink from it. He found his country a semi-Oriental power, he made her a Western nation; he found her isolated from the West, shut in on from the sea on the north-west by Sweden, cut off from Europe on the west by Poland, and barred from the Black Sea by Turkey. With indomitable perseverance he set himself to reform the internal institutions and raise them from a barbaric level to that of the Western states. He saw with a statesman's foresight that if his country was to occupy its rightful place among the nations of the West that her way must be cleared towards the sea. With this end in view he made war on the Swedes and established his new capital, St. Petersburg, on the shores of the gulf of Finland. The weakness of Turkey paved the way for Russian domination in the Black Sea. Poland was already weak. The policy thus initiated by Peter the Great was carried on by his successors, and in spite of relapses progress was maintained. Catherine II. extended the boundaries of the Empire westwards by sharing in the partitions of Poland. In her reign the Crimea was finally conquered and Russia became the most powerful nation on the Black Sea. Constant progress was also made in extending the Empire in the East.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia had an area of about 2,000,000, square miles and a population estimated at about 50,000,000. In spite of her great extent, she was with the exception of Poland, a united empire. The central provinces were of Slav blood, not without some Tatar admixture, which increases in the east and south-east. The Baltic Provinces were inhabited by Letts, Lithuanians and Finns; of these the Letts and Lithuanians had been for centuries under German influence. Her population at this period was mainly rural, only some five per cent. of the whole living in towns, the largest of which were St. Petersburg with 300,000 inhabitants and Moscow with about 230,000. The population was composed of two classes, nobles and serfs. Peter the Great had striven to build up a middle class of traders and craftsmen, but without much success. Foreign trade was mainly in the hands of aliens or Jews. Education, in spite of Peter's efforts, had made but little progress. The learned professions had no corporate existence, and the possession of capital was almost restricted to the nobility. The Army, Navy, Church, and Civil Service were the only professions which brought distinction and eminence in these was the lot of a favoured few. Corruption and incompetence were rife in all. The vast mass of the people were serfs, chained to the soil and without political or social rights, entirely in the power of the landowners. No ray of hope lighted up the future for the wretched serf. "Education was prohibited to him; his agricultural implements were of a very rudimentary kind; his cattle were few and stunted."* In matters ecclesiastical the Orthodox Church was all-powerful and was regarded with affection by the people.

On the murder of Paul I, in 1801, Alexander I. became Tsar. His accession was hailed with delight by the nation, and his subjects looked forward with hope to the reign of one who was known to possess enlightened view. From his tutor Laharpe, he had imbibed the liberal views of Rousseau and Voltaire. Their hopes were not disappointed. During the first ten years numerous domestic reforms were carried out. The administration was remodelled; the nobility were granted their ancient rights; merchants and peasants were allowed to hold land; the fetters placed on trade were struck off; the censorship of the press was relaxed; education was extended, and many legal reforms were carried out.

In foreign affairs a change of policy was inaugurated. Owing to Paul's infatuation for Napoleon, Russia had become involved in war with Britain. The young Tsar formed a coalition against Napoleon. Prussia alone remained doubtful, and it was only the urgent appeals of Alexander I. backed by the entreaties of Stein that roused Frederick William and his Prussians from their lethargy. Austerlitz and Jena saw the armies of the Alliance routed and the disappointment of Alexander's hopes. Napoleon invaded Russia, and Alexander was compelled to make peace with Napoleon at Tilsit, 1807. This peace committed Russia to Napoleon's economic designs, and led to the Russian conquest of Finland from Sweden (1809), and incidentally to the Finnish Question.

In 1809, Napoleon offended Russia by the creation of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, which robbed Russia of most of Poland, and raised up a powerful enemy on her western frontier. The result was that Russia threw in her lot with the Allies, Russia was invaded, and Moscow burnt. Alexander was the soul of the Coalition which overthrew Napoleon at Leipzig (1813), the Battle of the Nations, and entered Paris on

* Skrine: *Expansion of Russia*, page 12.

March 31st, 1814. In this connection it is interesting to note that to the Emperor Alexander "are largely due the more civilised conceptions of warfare which Europe (*exceptis excipiendis*) now observes."* In spite of the memory of Moscow, the Russian hosts refrained from pillage. Alexander showed himself the true friend of France, and it was largely owing to his efforts that Louis XVIII. was forced to sign the Charter of Liberties. After Waterloo Blücher announced that he intended to levy a war-contribution of £40,000,000 on Paris, destroy the Place de Vendôme and blow up the bridge of Jena. (Prussian methods have not changed much in the last hundred years). It was only by the Tsar posting a regiment of his "barbarians" on the doomed bridge that the Prussians were prevented from carrying out their threat. While the Austrians and Prussians pillaged France, the British and Russian armies alone refrained from plunder. In this connection, it may be well to point out that in the War of Liberation against Napoleon the Prussians had no objection to serve with the "Muscovite barbarians" as they now politely term the Russians. Throughout the war it was the Germans and Austrians who showed the spirit of barbarism rather than their Russian allies.

It is interesting in the light of present events to note the part taken by the Tsar in the struggle against Napoleon. "His share was out of all proportion to the ill-developed resources of Russia. Alone he could never have crushed the Man of Destiny; but without him the continent would not have risen against its oppressor. His tenacity, when the Allies despaired of victory led them to Paris and enabled them to dictate peace there. When Napoleon's escape from Elba called for fresh efforts, the Tsar was again the mainspring of the common cause. The victory won by his vigour and persistence was crowned by a magnanimity worthy of the heroic age. For a brief period he was the arbiter of Europe; and the eyes of all turned to him for protection. Intrepid in danger, he held war in horror, and, conscious of the evils which afflicted the nation, he resolved to devote the remainder of his life to alleviating them."†

Unfortunately for Russia the times were not ripe either in Russia or in Europe for the realisation of Alexander's noble ideals. The "Holy Alliance," thanks to the malign influence of Metternich, instead of facilitating the coming of the Kingdom of God became an engine of despotism which was ruthlessly used to stamp out liberal ideas. Returning home to find his country exhausted and a great deal of discontent among his subjects, Alexander carried out reforms in the finances and the army, but the great dream of his life, the Liberation of the Serfs, was left to one of his successors. During the long war public morality had declined and a thorough reform of the legal administration was found necessary. The peculation and corruption among the Government servants were repressed with a strong hand. Further encouragement was given to commerce and trade throughout the Empire, manufactures of all kinds being sedulously encouraged and aided by the imposition of tariffs.

But though he encouraged reforms at home, the Tsar fell more and more under the influence of Metternich and politically he set himself to repress anything savouring of Jacobinism. In pursuance of her claim to be the guardian of Christian subjects in the Turkish Empire, Russia aided the Greeks in their struggle for independence—much against the will of the Tsar, whose hand was forced 1822-5. The last years of his reign are marked by the reactionary policy, known as the Arakchievchina, named after Arakchiv, the Chancellor. During these years all liberal ideas were suppressed, education of the common people was forbidden, religious liberty withdrawn and the old abuses flourished. The natural result was that hundreds of secret societies sprang into existence, and the whole country was soon seething with discontent.

The reaction begun in the last years of Alexander continued under his successor Nicholas I, 1825-55. The chief events of his reign apart from the Crimean War were the Revolution in Poland, which ended in the final loss of Polish liberty and unmitigated despotism, and the war with Persia. Great advances were made in Central Asia and the Caucasus. In 1849, Muraviev built the great fortress of Petropavolsk in Kamskatchka.

With the accession of Alexander II. an era of reform set in once more. The new reign saw the Emancipation of the Serfs (1861), a reform which surpasses in the magnitude of the numbers affected by any similar reform in history. These serfs now became free and self-respecting citizens. Attempts had been made by previous Tsars to reform the administration of law and order, but under Nicholas I. the whole judicial administration was reorganised, the condition of prisons was improved, and legal procedure facilitated. Local self-government was also introduced, and

* Skrine: *Expansion of Russia*, page 320.

† Skrine, l. c. page 45.

land-proprietors met to discuss the affairs of the parish on an equal footing with emancipated serfs. Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace describes the effect produced on his mind by the debates at these assemblies. "Unlike," he says, "the English, who crawl cautiously forward along the rugged path of progress, looking attentively to right and left and seeking to avoid obstacles and circumvent opposition by conciliation and compromise, the Russian dashes boldly into the unknown, keeping his eye fixed on the distant goal and striving to follow a bee-line, regardless of pitfalls and consequences."* This reminds us of Talleyrand's saying that 'the cardinal difference between Russia and the rest of Europe was that she worked for the future; and her neighbours only for the present.' But the result of working for the future, and neglecting the present, is seen in those mea reactions which have been so common in Russian history.

The enthusiasm of Alexander II. for reform was unhappily checked by a widespread revolutionary movement, chiefly among the student classes, who imagined that the most advanced socialist ideals of the West could be realised immediately, if only autocrats were got rid of. The movement spread to all classes, and in 1881, Alexander II. was assassinated "on the eve of issuing a decree for the Convocation of a National Assembly."

Alexander III., like his predecessors in the XIXth century, began his reign in a time of crisis. During the last three years of his father's reign, outrage and sedition pervaded the Empire. The natural result of this period of terror was that reform ceased for a time, but during the next twenty-five years, those already initiated were consolidated and Russia made considerable progress economically. Nihilism gradually declined, but an anti-Semite crusade began under Ignatiev in 1882. By a series of edicts almost every political right was wrested from the Jews, who were obnoxious to the Greek Church, who had in Pobiedonostev (Procurator of the Holy Synod) and Ignatiev willing instruments, whose influence was all-powerful with the pious Tsar. On the other hand the new Tsar was most solicitous for the welfare of the peasantry. In 1884 the last relic of serfdom, the poll-tax, was abolished; a scheme of land-purchase was initiated; and the peasantry were empowered to purchase or rent land by the institution of Peasants Banks. The Tsar also tried to discourage drunkenness by reducing the number of public-houses—a reform which was carried to its conclusion by the abolition of the State-sale of liquor in Russia in 1914.

Special attention was also paid to the magnificent forests of Russia, of which she possesses 498,000,000 acres. Measures were passed for regulating wood-cutting and special Forest-Boards established. The great mineral wealth of Russia was tapped under the care of M. Witte, protection was extended to young industries and an era of industrial progress set in. The result may be seen in the development of a city like Lodz, which had a population of only 50,000 in 1872, and of 400,000 in 1910. Towards the end of the reign of Alexander III., Russia made rapid progress in railway development. In 1891, the Trans-Siberian railway, which linked up Western Europe with the Pacific Ocean, was begun and railways are rapidly being constructed in every part of the Empire.

Politically Alexander's reign was reactionary. His favourite maxim was—"One Russia, one Creed, one Tsar." We have already seen how his zeal for 'one Creed' led to the terrible persecutions of the Jews; Protestant dissenters were also subjected to vigorous restrictions. In his zeal for centralisation he stamped out the last relics of Polish freedom, and began the curtailment of the liberties of the Grand Duchy of Finland. A system of Russification was adopted, which was specially aimed at the destruction of Swedish influence in that Province. This policy is still dominant in the councils of the Tsar.

The earlier portion of the reign of Alexander III was guided in foreign policy by a treaty with Germany, engineered by Bismarck in 1884. But Germany's alliance with Austria and the consequent danger to Russian interests in the Balkans, led to a gradual estrangement, which threw Russia into the arms of France, (1891) now isolated by the Triple Alliance and the antagonism of England, with whose interests the Russian advance towards India seemed likely to clash.

While Alexander III was an autocrat of the autocrats, and showed it in his repression of liberal instincts in his subjects, his devotion to the church, his zeal for the greatness of his country and the well-being of the peasantry won him the love and affection of the vast bulk of his subjects, so that his death in 1894 was bewailed by every class of the community.

Nicholas II., the present Tsar, affirmed on his accession his intention to "promote the progress and peaceful glory of our beloved Russia, and the happiness of all our faithful subjects," a promise which he has faithfully kept, in spite of the crises which his country has passed through during his

* *Our Russian Ally.*

reign. The war with Japan which seemed fraught with the disaster to Russia has really been a blessing in disguise. Russia's defeat forced her sovereign and his ministers to throw themselves in earnest into the task of trying to satisfy the political aspirations of the country. The result of this was the promulgation of a decree constituting a Chamber of Deputies or Duma, freely elected by the people, and an Upper House, or Imperial Council, whose members are selected partly by election and partly by nomination. Here are collected a most heterogenous assembly of nationalities—Great Russians, Little Russians, Finns, Tatars, Poles, Russo-Germans, Circassians, etc. The number of parties is almost as large as the number of nationalities. The cabinet unlike ours is nominated by the Tsar, though his choice is limited by the fact that he must choose ministers who will receive the support of the Duma. Dead-locks have occurred several times and are likely to occur again in future, but slowly and surely the Russian people are working out their political salvation as they have worked out their economic and social salvation.

It is true that much remains to be done even in these two last spheres. Education is still backward, "but three great educational factors are at work; the first is the Government educational system which is doing its utmost to extend lower secondary and higher education throughout the Empire; the second is the army in which every unlettered recruit is taught to read and write; and the third is to be found in the practical education given in the village assemblies which are spread like a network over the Empire, and where all communal affairs are discussed and settled." A new spirit has begun to pervade the people. In agricultural affairs the peasantry are relinquishing their conservative methods and manifesting a progressive spirit. Industrially the country is passing through a revolution, which may not inaptly be compared with the English Industrial Revolution of the eighteenth century. A new mercantile and middle class has arisen, full of sympathy with culture and progress. The standard of comfort has everywhere risen. The sons of the new middle class are being well-educated in schools, technical colleges and universities. The clergy, on the whole, are the most backward class, but under the new regime their attitude is neutral towards science and culture rather than obstructive. The church must not be entirely blamed for the persecution of the Jews. It is true that they are not guiltless, but much of the hatred of the Jew has been due to economic rather than religious causes. The Jewish money-lender in the past made himself both indispensable to and hated by the Russian peasant.

The nobles have also shared in the general progress. They have been described by a competent judge as "well-educated, highly cultured, remarkably open-minded, most anxious to acquaint themselves with the latest ideas in science, literature and art, and very fond of studying the most advanced foreign theories of social and political development, with a view to applying them to their own country*."

We will conclude this sketch of the political and social development of Russia by quoting Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace's summing up of Russia's relation to England—"The conflicting interests of the two great powers are not so irreconcilable as they are so often represented, and the chances of solving the difficult problem by mutually satisfactory compromises may be greatly increased by cultivating friendly relations with the Power which was formerly our rival and now our ally." All that has occurred since the War began tends to justify this optimistic view of the future relations between the Russian and British Empires.

* Mackenzie Wallace, l. c, 2, *ibid* page 23.

THE IDEAS OF BERNHARDI.

BY MR. T. E. WELBY.

It was long ago pointed out by Madame De Stael that "thought, which calms other people, excites the Germans." If that was true of the Germany of her day, it is truer of modern Germany, and in our time the thought of Germany has been singularly feverish, full of heady doctrine and megalomania. The hasty people who expound the causes of the war in the half-penny papers have seized on the name of Nietzsche and dragged it into every discussion with the assurance which only complete ignorance of his work can give. The truth is that only to a very limited extent, and then mostly indirectly, can Nietzsche be regarded as the author of

the movement which culminated in German aggression and the war. His great and disordered mind was that of a poet rather than that of a philosopher—many of his ideas can be paralleled out of William Blake—and he cannot possibly be regarded as "a safe guide." There is much extravagance, much morbidity, much ferocious egotism in Nietzsche, but there are indisputable flashes of wisdom, elements of real grandeur, and for the discriminating reader a tonic against sentimentalism that is dangerous only if swallowed in large doses. It is to lesser men, to the notoriously fanatical historian Trietschke and to the egregious Bernhardi, that we must look for the clearer and coarser doctrines which have helped to intensify the madness of modern Germany.

Of Bernhardi the man, there is little to say. He is over sixty years of age, a retired General living on his estate in Silesia, and writing there books which have no great intrinsic value but which has greatly stimulated the German militarists and therefore claim attention.

Bernhardi's writings on the methods by which war should be waged do not here concern us. We have to deal with (i) his belief that war is in itself "an instrument of culture," and (ii) his conviction that war is a necessity for Germany, unless she is to lose her position. As regards the first part of the enquiry, it may shortly be said that there is a considerable amount of half-truth in Bernhardi's contentions. War does undoubtedly bring out some valuable qualities in civilised mankind, which in peace are liable to decay or at least to lie dormant. The thing is a platitude, and here it may be said that Bernhardi is an inveterate platitude-monger, with no really fine quality of mind, though with a kind of crude power of pressing assertions home. The proper answer to the first part of Bernhardi's case is not denial of the truths he exaggerates but the retort that his contention is merely a criticism of our failure to make peace a finer thing. The inference which wisdom would draw from his premiss is not—"Then let us rush into war," but, "let us make peace something more heroical than the mere negation of war." As for the second part of his case, it needs more detailed statement.

Being a German, with the humourless megalomania of modern or Prussianised Germany in his very marrow, he calmly assumes as a sort of law that Germany must be morally ("morally" is good) entitled to acquire such territories as other Powers now hold, for by their possession she would be enabled to "find herself," to realise her national aspirations. That this is not a burlesque of his view may be easily shown. He writes in the work translated as "Britain, Germany's Vassal" to this effect:—The Germans are the most cultured race on the earth; they started late in the race for colonies; they believe they could make better use of colonies than Great Britain and France have done; therefore they have a *moral* right to acquire British and French colonies! The moral question being thus simply settled, Bernhardi turns to the problems of practical politics. According to him, the Triple *Entente* is directed against Germany, whereas of course it was entirely defensive and so vague that Great Britain's intervention in this war would have been uncertain if Belgian neutrality had not been violated. And why is Great Britain so determined to destroy Germany's navy? Bernhardi is ready with the most fantastic explanation ever given by a professed authority on international affairs. Great Britain, he declares, expects eventually to have to fight the United States! She dared not risk that with so powerful a fleet as the German in European waters. Consequently, according to Bernhardi, she has for years been anxious to bring about war and smash the German fleet while as yet the Anglo-American war was a long way off! Of course, the explanation of this clumsy and far-fetched fiction is that Bernhardi dare not avow that Germany has for years persistently challenged British naval supremacy, while on land she was making herself on the whole the first military Power in the world.

"Hemmed in" by Great Britain, France and Russia, denied all opportunity of asserting her precious moral right to other nations' colonies, and bursting with the parvenu pride of a new Empire, for which Bernhardi finds a prettier name, Germany finds war "a moral and biological necessity." Two years ago he wrote:—"A policy which is ready to act is demanded in the interest of self-preservation out of political wisdom. It would be very dangerous to follow a waiting policy." And again:—"If we maintain an attitude of inactivity and drift, Germany's position will become more and more unfavourable." He has not had long to wait for that war which was to be "an instrument of culture" (applied to the historic art-treasures of Belgium) and to prove the force of his claim that the Germans are the most idealistic and enlightened of peoples.

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VON. BERNHARDI.

THE DREADFUL STORY OF WILLIAM AND THE MATCHES.

It almost makes me cry to tell
What foolish William once befell.
He'd grown more headstrong every day
And now was left alone at play.
Upon the table close at hand
A box of matches chanced to stand.
Now Dame Europa oft had told him
That if he touched them she would scold him.
But William said, "Oh, what a pity,
For when they burn it is so pretty!
So long I've waited for this game!
They crackle and they spurt and flame!"

The pussy-cats heard this,
And they began to hiss,
And stretch their claws,
And raise their paws:
"Me-ow," they said, "me-ow, me-o;
You'll burn to death if you do so!"

But William would not take advice
He lit a match—it was so nice!
It crackled so, it burnt so clear
(Exactly like the picture here),
He jumped for joy and ran about,
And was too pleased to put it out.

The pussy-cats were still
Alarmed at naughty Will.
They stretched their claws,
And raised their paws:
"'Tis very, very wrong, you know;
Me-ow, me-o! Me-ow, me-o!
You will be burnt if you do so!

But see, O what a flaming storm!
The fire has caught his uniform;
His tunic burns, his arms, his hair,
He burns all over, everywhere.

Then how the pussy-casts did mew,
What else, poor pussies, could they do?
They screamed at him, 'twas all in vain,
And then they screamed and screamed again.
"Make haste! make haste! me-ow, me-o!
He'll burn to death, we told him so!"

So Will was burnt, with all his clothes,
His arms and hands and eyes and nose;
All perished in a flaming crash—
Except the points of his moustache!
And nothing else but these was found
Among his ashes on the ground.

And when the good cats sat beside
The smoking ruins, how they cried!
"Me-ow me-oo, me-ow me-oo,
What will our German Empire do?"
The tears ran down their cheeks so fast
They made a little pond at last.

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* From Messrs Methuen & Co's., publication.—"Swollen headed William."

GENERAL VON MOLTKE.

The German Generalissimo in the War of 1870 and the Victor of Sedan, Von Moltke's name is still an inspiration to the Germans. From all accounts the German Staff is following closely the principles and methods laid down by this great strategist.

The National Songs of the Belligerents

BY PROF. K. C. MACARTNEY, M.A.,

(of the Madras Christian College.)

THE ENGLISH NATIONAL ANTHEM.

NEARLY all nations possess battle-songs and battle-tunes, and the value of these to an army in the field is immense, seeing that very much depends upon arousing the enthusiasm of the individual soldier. This has been recognised by some Governments, notably the German, who train their armies to sing at the word of command with as much ease as they train them to shoot. In the British Army, however, the songs of the troops are not the songs which have been hallowed by tradition, but, as a rule, the latest music-hall ditty, the English soldier does not care to sing about himself. There are however some songs and hymns in which the British Empire as a whole gives vent to its feelings of patriotism in moments of exaltation. The most conspicuous among these is the National Anthem, 'God Save the King.' It was a thoroughly British instinct which prompted Mr. Crooks, Labour M.P. for Woolwich, to start the singing of this Hymn on the prorogation of Parliament the other day.

The origin of this most famous of all National Anthems is still uncertain. No trace of either words or music can be found earlier than the first years of the 17th century. The first claimant has always been favoured because of his name, Dr. John Bull. His Ayre corresponds to part of the air of 'God Save the King,' and was actually used for a Latin Hymn, on which some claim to base the English sung in the Royal Chapel in 1688, but neither the Latin Hymn nor the English Ayre exactly correspond with the Anthem. Other songs, the airs of which have a partial resemblance to that of 'God Save the King' are "Remember, O thou man" (1611), "Franklin is fled away" (1669), and an air by Dr. Purcell published in 1696 upon which is based a claim put forward in favour of this great musician.

Perhaps the best claimant to the authorship of the words is Henry Carey, who is reported to have sung them in 1740, at a banquet to celebrate the taking of Portobello. In 1742 the words and music were published by Kidson. During the excitement attending the Jacobite rising of 1745, 'God Save the King' was sung as a pro-Hanoverian patriotic song at Drury Lane and Covent Garden, and was published, words only, in *The Gentleman's Magazine* for October of that year. It is quite possible that the words are in older songs, but very little trace of them remains. It is true that late in the 17th century the pass word was given to the Navy of 'God Save the King' with the countersign 'Long may He Reign,' but no theory of an earlier date of authorship for 'God Save the King' could possibly be built upon so slight a foundation. We have, therefore, to conclude that the Anthem was first composed in the reign of King George II. A reference to the text of the verses will show that it could not have been sung to delight the ear of a Tudor or Stuart Sovereign :

> May he defend our laws
> And ever give us cause
> To sing with heart and voice
> God Save the King

has something Whiggish in the sound of it, rhyme and lyrical fervour have both here succumbed under the weight of constitutional theory. The first verse is the one most commonly sung, and it is certainly the best. Scrupulous persons have objected to the fiery pugnacity of the second verse, and those who are quite unmoved by such considerations will no doubt agree that 'knavish tricks' as a rhyme for 'politics' is perilously near to the licences allowed only in comic verse. We have pointed out that the defect of the last verse is that it lacks the intensity of the other two. It has often happened that on very special occasions verses have been added to the National Anthem, as, for example, on the occasion of the Diamond Jubilee celebrations of her late Majesty Queen Victoria, but these verses have never survived the occasion for which they appeared.

The text of the Anthem is as follows :

GOD SAVE THE KING.

God save our gracious King!
Long live our noble King!
God save the King!
Send him victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us;
God save the King!

O Lord our God, arise,
Scatter his enemies,
And make them fall!
Confound their politics,
Frustrate their knavish tricks,
On Thee our hopes we fix—
God save us all!

Thy choicest gifts in store,
On him be pleased to pour,
Long may he reign!
May he defend our laws,
And ever give us cause
To sing, with heart and voice,
God save the King.

The tune of the English National Anthem has evidently a great fascination for foreign peoples. In 1766 there were French words set to the tune; in 1790 Harries wrote the words of the Danish National Anthem for the English tune, and his example was followed by Schumacher in 1793 when composing the Prussian Hymn, which is the tune played in Germany to do honour to any prince of the House of Hohenzollern, 'Heil dir im liebe krantz,' which is the only strictly religious lyric of a national character in Germany. Down to 1830 this tune was used on all ceremonial occasions in Russia, and the people of the United States of America sing to it their song "My Country 'tis of thee."

THE RUSSIAN NATIONAL ANTHEM.

The Russian National Anthem was composed by General Alexis Theodorovitch Lwoff, who was made director of the Imperial Chapel in 1836. The words are by Joukovsky (1833). Of all compositions of this class it is the most moving and solemn, it is far more a hymn than a National Song. The accepted translation is as follows:

God the All-terrible, Thou who ordainest,
Thunder Thy clarion and lightning Thy sword,
Show forth Thy pity on high where Thou reignest,
Give to us peace in our time, O Lord.

God the All-merciful, earth hath forsaken
Thy holy ways, and hath slighted Thy word,
Let not Thy wrath in its terror awaken,
Give to us peace in our time, O Lord.

God the Omnipotent, Mighty Avenger,
Watching invisible, judging unheard,
Save us in mercy, and save us in danger,
Give to us peace in our time, O Lord.

THE AUSTRIAN NATIONAL ANTHEM.

The music of the Austrian National Anthem 'Gott erhalte Franz den Kaiser' was composed by Haydn (1707), it is said at the Imperial command. It figures as a hymn tune in English hymn-books. The translation by Edward Oxenford is not a very successful rendering of the vigour of the German of Baron Zedlitz. The text is as follows:

God preserve our gracious Emp'ror,
Franz our sovereign, great is he!
Wise as ruler, deep in knowledge,
Nations his renown may see!
Love entwines a crown of laurel
That shall all unfading be;
God preserve our gracious Emp'ror,
Franz our sovereign, great is he!

O'er a vast and mighty Empire
Ruler and Sovereign day by day;
Though he wields a potent sceptre,
All beneficent his sway!
From his shield the Sun of Justice
Ever casts its purest ray!
God preserve, etc.

To adorn himself with virtues
He, and all successful, tries;
Ne'er against his loving people
Does his hand in anger rise!
No! to see them free and happy,
This he holds the highest prize.
God preserve, etc.

Pioneer of perfect freedom,
Blessings round his footsteps cling!
To its pinnacle of greatness
Soon may he his country bring!
And when death at last approaches
Shall his grateful people sing:
God preserve, etc.

THE FRENCH NATIONAL SONG.

This concludes that class of National Song to which the term Anthem may with any strictness be applied. But of late years a tendency has grown up to divest the term 'Anthem' of any specially religious significance in this sense, so that we find people writing and speaking of the French and Belgian National 'Anthems,' meaning the Marseillaise and the Brabanconne, and we have even heard the term recently applied to 'Rule Britannia' and 'Die Wacht am Rhine.'

Though the Marseillaise cannot be called a religious hymn, it is the most fervent, the most exalted, and the most national, of all national songs. We have known people utterly ignorant of the meaning of the words carried away by the inspired tune of the Republic. Everyone who realizes the power of sound to inspire action must acknowledge that one of the great spiritual assets of France is the possession of this wonderful song,

The story of its composition is one full of romance. On the evening of Tuesday 24th April 1792, Claude Joseph Rouget de Lisle, Captain of Engineers, attached to the Army of the Lower Rhine, was at supper in the house of Dietrich, the Mayor of Strasburg. In the course of conversation, the host expressed regret that the young recruits had no song, the singing of which might keep their enthusiasm at white heat. Before the evening was over, Rouget de Lisle has composed and sung both words and music. Next day he wrote it down and dedicated it to the General commanding the Army of the Rhine. It was played by the band of the Garde Nationale on Sunday 29th April. On 25th June, the singer Mireur sang it at a banquet in Marseilles on the eve of the departure of the southern army for Paris. It was they who brought it to the capital, and it was first heard in battle on 10th August during the attack on the Tuilleries. It receives its name from the fact that it was the southern army which brought it to Paris. The following is the accepted translation:

Ye sons of France, awake to glory,
Hark, hark, what myriads bid you rise,
Your children, wives, and grandsires hoary,
Behold their tears and hear their cries!
Shall hateful tyrants, mischief breeding,
With hireling hosts, a ruffian band,
Affright and desolate the land,
While peace and liberty lie bleeding?
To arms! To arms, ye brave!
Th'avenging sword unsheath!
March on, march on, all hearts resolved
To victory or death.

Now, now the dangerous storm is scowling
Which treacherous kings, confederate, raise;
The dogs of war, let loose, are howling,
And, lo! our fields and cities blaze.
And shall we basely view the ruin,
While lawless force, with guilty stride,
Spreads desolation far and wide,
With crimes and blood his hands embruing.

With luxury and pride surrounded,
The vile, insatiate despots dare,
Their thirst of power and gold unbounded,
To mete and vend the light and air;
Like beasts of burden would they load us,
Like gods would bid their slaves adore:
But man is man, and who is more?
Then shall they longer lash and goad us?

O Liberty! can man resign thee!
Once having felt thy generous flame?
Can dungeon, bolts, and bars confine thee,
Or whip thy noble spirit tame?
Too long the world has wept, bewailing
That falsehood's dagger tyrants wield;
But freedom is our sword and shield,
And all their arts are unavailing.

THE BELGIAN NATIONAL SONG.

La Brabanconne was written by Genneval and set to music by Campenhout, during the struggle of the Belgians to assert their independence of Holland in 1830. Though it cannot bear comparison with the Marseillaise, the greatest of all war-chants, yet it belongs to the same class and is not a little influenced by it. It has been thus translated:

Fled the years of servile shame!
Belgium, 'tis thine hour at last.
Wear again thy glorious name,
Spread thy banner on the blast.
Sovereign people in thy might
Steadfast yet and valiant be
On thine ancient standard write:
King and Law and Liberty.

Strive, not seek discharge at length,
Hold thy courage as they crown,
God, Who keeps thee in His strength,
On thy labours smileth down,
Over all thy fruitful land,
Labour's prize is full and free,
On thine arts enthroned stand,
King and Law and Liberty,

Foes that were our friends of old
Are returned to love at last,
All the free we prize as gold,
Praying that our strife be passed.
Belgians and Batavians friends
Knit in brotherhood shall be,
With one voice the shout ascends;
King and Law and Liberty

Belgium, Mother, thus we vow;
Never shall our love abate,
Thou our Hope, our Safety thou,
Hearts and blood are consecrate.
Grave, we pray, upon thy shield
This device eternally;
Weal, or woe, at home, afield,
King and Law and Liberty.

THE GERMAN NATIONAL SONG.

Perhaps the German Die Wacht am Rhine belongs to this class of National Anthem, though it is far less spirited than either the French or the Belgian. The words are by Max Scheckenburger (1840) and the music by Carl Wilhelm (1854). The best translation is that by Edward Oxenford.

So long as life-blood still shall flow,
Or sword be left to strike a blow,
Whilst arm be left the gun to bear,
No foeman's foot shall venture there!
Dear Fatherland, etc.

Our oath resounds! The stream flows by!
Our banners proudly wave on high!
The Rhine! The Rhine! The German Rhine!
Our lives till death are ever thine!
Dear Fatherland, etc.

Besides these 'official' songs of the nations, there is a large class in every country of patriotic

poetry echoing the roll of drums and the rattle of musketry, and generally written in the exultation of victory. To this class belong compositions like Thomson's 'Rule Britannia,' 'The British Grenadiers,' and many of the poems of Sir Walter Scott and Thomas Campbell. The scope of this article does not permit more than a passing reference to the United States of America, but that country is particularly rich in verse of this kind mostly arising out of the Civil War.

We have not been able to secure particulars of the National Hymns or Songs of Servia, or a suitable translation of the Japanese National Song. Among the other nations of Europe there is a tendency to make use of the tunes of 'God Save the King' and the 'Marseillaise' upon occasions of ceremony, as we have already shown in the case of the English Hymn.

THE JAPANESE NATIONAL ANTHEM.

The following translation of the Japanese National Hymns has been sent to us which we add for the sake of completeness though it hardly compares with the versions of the other Anthems and Songs given.

> May our Emp'ror's reign endure, when a thousand
> Are grown old, myriad fold : [ages more
> Like Sandgrains, in firm rock massed,
> Changeless last ; bearing moss of ages past.

THE LATE EARL ROBERTS.

A truly genuine and profound shock of sorrow was caused by the death of "Bobs" the most famous and acknowledgedly the best beloved of British soldiers on November 14, 1914. At the ripe old age of 82 the venerable warrior was unsparing in his devotion to his king and country and exerted himself to the utmost in getting up the contingents for the war with Germany. He went to France to greet the Indian troops of which he was Colonel-in-Chief, contracted a chill and succumbed to pneumonia after a short illness. As it has been truly observed "the end near the fighting line, in the greatest war in history, near the Indian troops by whom he was held in such deep affection was one fitting such a great soldier."

Born in Cawnpore in India on the 30th September 1832, Frederick Sleigh Roberts spent most of his early childhood in England. After some schooling at Eton and other places he obtained a Commission in the Bengal Cavalry and set out for India, reaching Calcutta in April, 1852. His chance for an active military service came with the Mutiny in 1857. It was in one of the fights before Delhi that Roberts came by his first wound. He served all through the Mutiny with credit and at an engagement at Khudaganj on the Kali Nadi he won the Victoria Cross for two valarous acts in rescuing an officer named Younghusband and for retrieving a British standard at the risk of his life. Then followed a series of brilliant achievements in quick succession. He stormed Lucknow, served in the Abyssinian Campaign of 1868, in the Lushai Expedition of 1871-72 and in the Afghan War of 1878. On the 31st of July 1880 he reached Kandahar and routed the Afghans. It was a historic march and one of the few military feats of modern warfare. Soon after, he became a Peer and a Field Marshall.

Then came the Boer War with the triumph of British arms which confirmed his reputation. His meritorious services were amply acknowledged with a generous present from the National Exchequer.

During his active and busy career Lord Roberts found time to write a book on the *Rise of Wellington* and the celebrated *Forty-one Years in India* after he retired, and he laboured unceasingly in drawing his country's attention to the inadequacy of the military forces of Great Britain and the necessity of introducing some kind of conscription. "Little Bobs" was the idol of the British army. Among the Indian troops he was a great favourite and his trust in them was never for a moment abused. The last scene of his labours is thus in harmony with his career. He died among the troops he loved so well and in the arms of his old friend Sir Pratap of Jodhpur. "Death came to him at last," said the Prime Minister in the House of Commons in proposing a motion for a national monument to his memory, "where he would have liked to have died, fresh from reviewing Indian troops, to whom his name and fame were a watchword and inheritance, and saluted, as he passed away by the distant roar of guns, which fell like music on the ears of the dying warrior, surrounded by his comrades in arms, showing the same dauntless heroism as ever."

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THE LATE EARL ROBERTS.

THE DOMINIONS BACK UP THE MOTHERLAND

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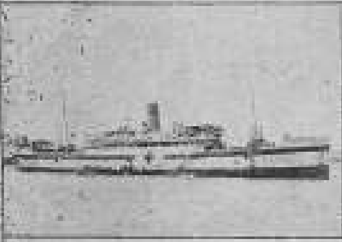

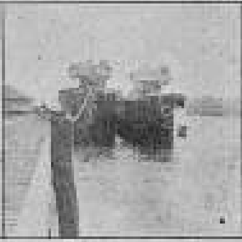

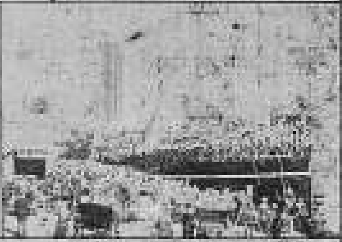

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CEYLON.—SINGHALESE GIRLS AS BRITANNIA AND HER ALLIES
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AUSTRALIAN BATTALION UNDER CANVAS AT SYDNEY
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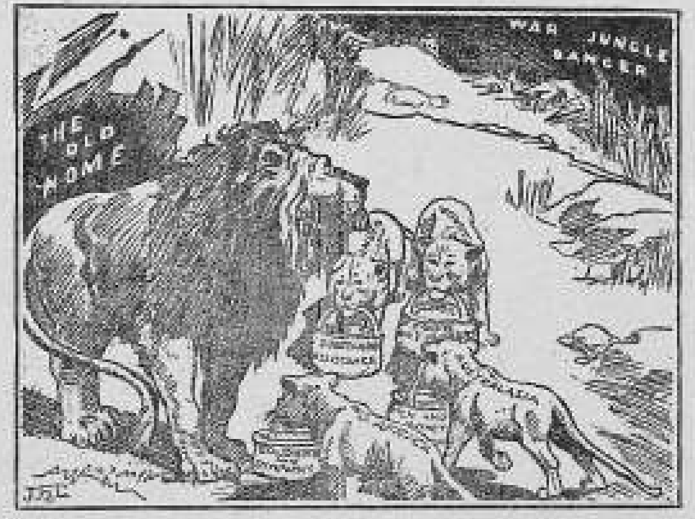
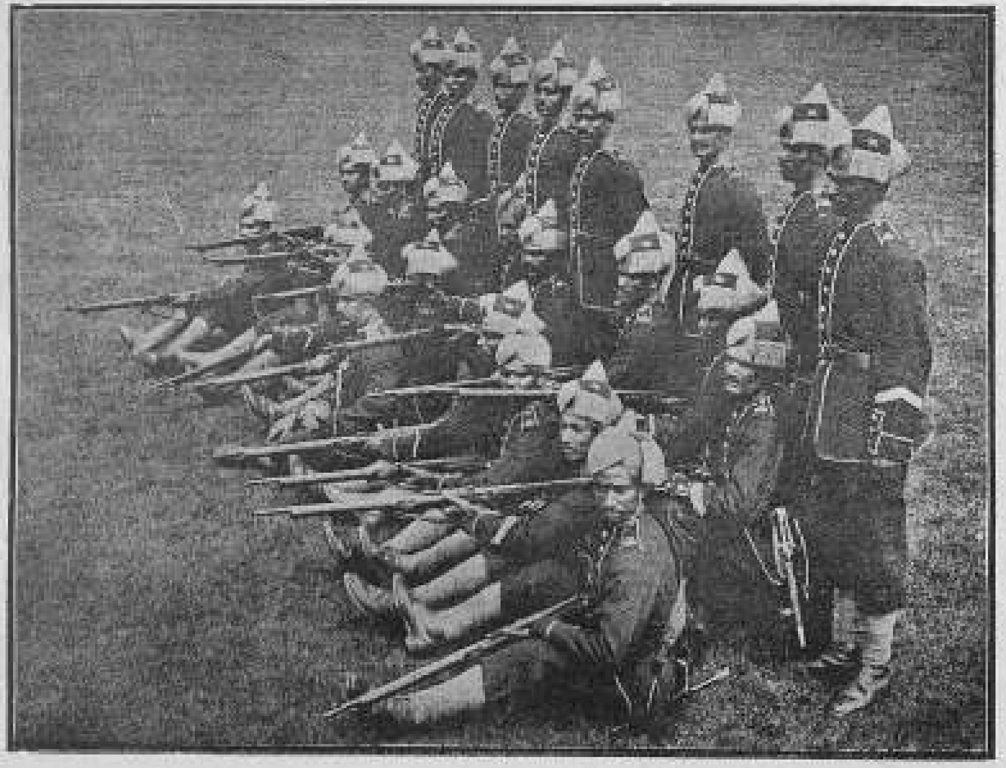


THE LION AND THE CUBS.

"One touch of danger makes the Empire kin."

Daily Dispatch.



THE 20TH MADRAS INFANTRY.

THE ORIGIN OF THE MADRAS SEPOY

BY MR. HENRY DODWELL, M.A.

THE recent despatch of the Madras Sappers on active service naturally suggests to the mind the long history of the Sepoy Forces in the Madras Army. Although half-military peons had long been maintained, as well by the President and Council of Fort St. George as by the French at Pondichery and the Dutch at Negapatam, and although these had on occasions served against the predatory attacks of local Nawabs, they were too irregular, undisciplined and ill-armed a body to be of effective value. Those armed with guns of any sort possessed matchlocks, not flint-locks; many were armed with bamboo lances; others with sword and target. Little if any training was attempted; and the men came and went, were entertained and reduced, with the greatest frequency.

Sepoy troops seem first to have been effectively employed, not on the Coromandel, but on the Malabar Coast. There, as here, English and French were established close to each other; and their relations were embittered by commercial rivalry many years before the great struggle between the two nations began in the Carnatic. The principal article of trade was pepper, which was exported to Europe, to Persia and to China. In those days the coast was occupied by numerous small princes, most of whom had made treaties with one or other of the European companies granting the exclusive privilege of buying pepper within their narrow dominions. This led to interminable intrigues. Both French and English factories busily endeavoured to extend their own and curtail their rivals' opportunities of purchase. On more than one occasion this resulted in French and English nearly coming to blows; and very often the little fortresses of Tellicherry and Mahé were threatened by a league of Malabar princelings. At neither did trade warrant a considerable European garrison; and so began the custom of taking into service bodies of soldiers recruited on that coast.

A word or two must be said about these troops and their organisation. They were most effectively recruited by some well-known partisan leaders, such as Abdul Rahman whom Ranga Pillai mentions so often, or Ishmael Khan whom the English at Tellicherry tried to secure as the commandant of their sepoys, who was reported to be 'famous throughout Asia,' but who preferred taking service under the Viceroy of Goa to enlisting under British colours. These sepoys (they were specifically so called in contradistinction to 'Caliquiloners,' 'Cotiotomen' or 'Tellicherry Moors') were mainly recruited on the northern part of the coast, in what now forms the Canara districts of Madras and Bombay. The great difficulty always was to get recruits who possessed weapons. In the instructions to an agent sent to raise men, we read that recruits without guns, or at least without swords and targets, are useless.

The earliest reference to these people appears to be in the Pondichery Records. It is stated that when La Bourdonnais in 1741 went to Mahé to rescue it from the attacks of the Nairs, he found sepoys in the French service. In the next year three companies were transferred to the Coromandel Coast. These seem to have been commanded by Abdul Rahman, Hassan Sahib, and Bikkan Khan. Abdul Rahman was believed to be the man who killed Anwar-ud-din Khan at Ambur, and Bikkan Khan figures unfortunately in the pages of Orme. Such was the origin of the sepoy on the Coromandel Coast.

The organisation and discipline which they received at the hands of the French, is an obscure and uncertain matter. Various writers have alleged that Dupleix drilled them after the European manner: but there is so much demonstrable falsity mixed up with the traditional account of Dupleix' sepoys that it is well to be cautious. Dupleix himself, writing on the subject after his return to Europe, says that none were known on the coast till 1746, although they were certainly present four years earlier. Weber talks of 1,500 being in Pondicherry in 1740 though only 300 were obtained and that two years later. Malleson with his usual impetuous indiscrimination takes the largest figure which he can find in gossiping memoirs, and states them at 5,000! Further, regarding the claim of drilling these sepoys European-wise, it was put forward on behalf of Francois Martin, who ruled Pondichery forty odd years before the time of Dupleix; and

allusions, which seem to point to something similar, are to be found at Madras in the last decade of the 17th and in Bengal in the first decade of the 18th century.

It appears possible that sporadic and transient efforts were made to drill the peons of an earlier day; but no trace of any tradition survives to show that such a practice continued to exist for any length of time; and the probabilities are, on the whole, against its existence at any of these earlier times. So far as Dupleix's administration is concerned, there seems to be no evidence to suggest that the French sepoy companies were at any time officered by Europeans; and if this negative evidence be accepted, it seems unlikely that the French sepoys were ever drilled according to the European method. It may, however, be conjectured that they were armed with flint-lock muskets, and that they followed the European musketry exercise in order to facilitate that rapidity of fire which then, as now, was an essential factor of success on the battlefield.

For several years the English at Fort St. David only followed the lead already given by the French. They too procured sepoys from their settlements on the Malabar Coast; they too left them to be officered by the men who had raised them; and it may be added, their experience was somewhat unfortunate. It has already been stated that Bikkan Khan commanded one of the French companies that were brought round in 1742. Next year he and his company were sent back again, and the company was broke. Presumably he was, therefore, the least efficient of the three French commandants. Shortly after, he was taken into the English service, and it was he who commanded the company of sepoys which reached Fort St. David in 1747. It was very natural for him to enter into correspondence with his former companions-in-arms; naturally too it led to proposals for him to change the English service for the French; and these proposals seem to have been accepted by him and a certain number of his command. He was seized, imprisoned, court-martialled, and with some of his companions banished to St. Helena for life. Orme's account, to a careless reader would seem to imply that he hanged himself there; but that was not so. Bikkan Khan turned up again in the Malabar Coast about 1756, became the 'head sepoy' at Mahé, and was seized incautiously passing through English territory with a hundred men whom he had enlisted for the French at Mangalore. He was soon, however, released on a reference to the Madras Council.

Such incidents as Bikkan Khan's contemplated desertion at Fort St. David were to be expected with men whose military system more resembled that of Italian condottieri than anything else. They would serve French or English according as they could get the best pay and terms of service; nor could they well feel the least interest in the disputes which set the two nations fighting. The French themselves were to find the same difficulty. After a much longer service than Bikkan Khan's, Abdul Rahman himself deserted the French and set up independently in the fortress of Elavananore (as Orme calls it) whence he impartially pillaged the villages in the occupation of the two companies, very much as the well known Yusaf Khan set up independently at Madura.

It was presumably to avoid these and similar inconveniences that after Lally's siege of Madras in 1758-59, the English set to work to organise their sepoy forces. The independent companies were formed into battalions, uniformed, officered, drilled on the same lines as the Company's European troops. To trace this latter history would lead one too far afield, and involve too long a story. It is, however, curious at the present time to reflect upon the origin of the 'sepoy' and to consider how it has come to pass that the successors of these soldiers of a century and a half ago are now fighting on European soil. Macaulay somewhere in speaking of the wide influences of the Seven Years' War observes that it set the Indians of the West fighting on the Mississippi and the Indian of the East fighting on the Cauvery. But what would he have said to a war which has called together from every province and division of the Empire, men differing infinitely in race and creed and language, but animated by a common spirit of hostility against a common foe?

ASPECTS OF THE VEDANTA.

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COLONIES AND THE WAR.

At the first threat of the peril of war, the British Dominions beyond the seas sprang to the support of the Mother-country with great alacrity. "Canada stands united from the Pacific to the Atlantic in her determination to uphold the honour and traditions of the Empire." So cabled the Duke of Connaught representing the public opinion of the Dominion. "All Australian resources are for the Empire's preservation and security," said the Prime Minister of the Commonwealth. Lord Liverpool, the Governor of New Zealand cabled, "New Zealand is prepared to send her utmost quota of help in support of the Empire." The youngest of these self-governing Dominions—the Union of South Africa—sent a superb demonstration of loyalty to the Empire. Everyday brings news of additional offers from the self-governing Dominions in the shape of men, money and materials.

AUSTRALIA.

An Australian Navy is placed at the disposal of the Admiralty and also an Expeditionary Force of 20,000 men.

These have been supplemented by the offer of another brigade of light horse with a brigade train and field abulance.

To the Australian Navy we owe the security of the Eastern waters. In an action off Cocos Islands the *Sydney's* gallant action resulted in the blowing up of the *Emden*.

£100,000 for a grant to Belgium; one ton butter; shipments of sheep for British troops and "sufferers in Belgium"; 60 tons of biscuits and foodstuff to the value of £1,950.

CANADA AND NEWFOUNDLAND.

For Naval and Military Service.—The cruisers *Niobe* and *Rainbow* are placed at the disposal of the Admiralty for commerce and protection.

Two submarines have been purchased and placed at the disposal of the Admiralty, also an Expeditionary Force of 20,000 men at the expense of the Dominions. The Expeditionary force which is now in the field is a complete contingent, with field hospitals and base hospitals and secondary hospitals with doctors and nurses.

Sir R. Borden (the Prime Minister) has announced that the Government will keep 30,000 volunteers continuously in training, to be drawn upon in units of 10,000 during the war.

"I fix no limit," said Sir Robert Borden, speaking at Halifax, "to the force we shall send forward." No effort, he asserted, is being spared "to provide organisation, equipment, and training, without which it is useless to send troops into the fighting line."

The women of Canada, through the Duchess of Connaught, have undertaken to equip a hospital ship, and the Canadian Pacific Railway have given a ship for the purpose.

Captain Hamilton Gault, of Montreal, at his own expense, has raised and equipped a regiment.

Gifts in Kind.—The Dominion, through the Duke of Connaught, has made a gift to the Mother-country of a million bags (98 lbs. each) of flour.

£20,000 from the women of Canada for forty motor ambulance cars, half for use in France and half in England, and £37,192 for a naval hospital with 100 beds to supplement the "Haslar" Naval Hospital at Portsmouth.

Newfoundland has undertaken to raise and equip a force of 500 men for service abroad, and an additional force to strengthen home defence.

NEW ZEALAND.

The Naval forces of New Zealand have been placed at the disposal of the Admiralty.

An Expeditionary Force of 8,000 men is being raised and equipped for service at the front.

£1,000 from the Citizens' Committee of Gisborne as a further contribution for the relief of British distress caused by the war; £1,000 from Dunedin for the relief of Belgian poor.

A shipload of food has been sent for the relief of the poor in the Mother-country.

SOUTH AFRICA.

The Union Government, in order to release Imperial troops in South Africa, undertakes to organise and equip an adequate force to take the place of the Imperial troops. General Botha has assumed the command of the Union Forces.

It reflects the highest credit on General Botha and the Union Government to have been able to overcome the difficulties created by the treacherous conduct of a handful of Boer Commandants and to take the offensive against the German Colonies in Africa with more or less marked success. On the 15th September, *i.e.* full five weeks after the declaration of hostilities between Great

Britain and Germany, General Beyers, Commandant General of the Union Defence Forces suddenly resigned his office. The only real effect of the incident was to provoke from the Minister of Defence a splendid statement of the "Conception of duty and honour" entertained by the South African Government and a crushing exposure of the late Commandant-General. Mr. Smutts indignantly pointed out in answer to the Ex-General's indictments against the British occupation of South Africa: "Since the South African War, the British people gave South Africa her entire freedom under a Constitution which makes it possible for us to realise our national ideals along our own lines and which, for instance allows you to write with impunity a letter for which you would without doubt be liable in the German Empire to the extreme penalty." After justifying the necessity for offensive action against German Africa the Minister declares: "Under these circumstances, it is absurd to speak about aggressive action on the part of the Union seeing that together with the British Empire we have been drawn against our wish and will and entirely in self-defence into this war." In vindicating the honour and loyalty of South Africa Mr. Smutts pointed out in conclusion: "I cannot conceive anything more fatal and humiliating than a policy of lip-loyalty in fair weather and of a policy of neutrality and pro-German sentiment in days of storm and stress." Scarcely had the sensation of this incident subsided when Colonel Maritz, one of the Dutch Commandants with his handful of men rebelled in the North-West Cape Province and went over to the Germans. The Union Government immediately replaced Maritz and proclaimed Martial Law stating that they would punish all rebels and traitors according to their deserts. This incident caused the utmost indignation in South Africa. Dutch papers on the Rand indignantly denounced the treachery of Maritz. A number of most influential ministers of the Dutch Reformed Church issued an open letter to the ministers in which they characterised Maritz's conduct as a shameless breach of faith.

Judging from the results even these slight incidents have not been altogether an unmixed evil. All classes of people enthusiastically rallied to the help of General Botha who as Supreme Commander of the South African Forces has justified his part. The action of the premier emphasises in the most complete and unquestionable manner the crushing contempt of the South African Government for the factious opposition of the small body of malcontents led by General Hertzog and others. General Botha and his colleagues have desired well of the Empire.

The capture of de Wet (who so treacherously broke the pledge given in the Treaty of Vereenig-ing) and the death of General Beyers contributed effectively to the collapse, and the capture and surrender of about 7,000 rebels was carried out with but slight loss to the loyalists.

OTHER COLONIES.

Jamaica is making a valuable gift of sugar. Besides this Jamaica was also offered 300,000 cigarettes (from a local firm) "for use of British troops at the front"; £13,000 for funds for sailors, soldiers, &c., and large presents of oranges and cocoa.

Mauritius.—The planters of Mauritius have offered a million pounds of sugar for the Navy and a similar amount for the Army.

Barbados has voted £20,000 from the Colonial Treasury as a contribution to "the expense of the righ-ous war now being waged by the Mother country and as a symbol of loyalty and attachment."

Ceylon.—The Tea Planter's Association are sending a million pounds of tea for the use of the troops in the field.

Sierra Leone.—£5,000 from the Legislative Council for the Prince of Wales' Fund.

Leeward Islands.—1,248lb. of guava jelly from Montserrat for the military and naval hospitals and the British forces in the field.

Bermuda.—£3,450 per annum for fifteen years (approximately £40,000) towards the cost of the war.

Bahamas.—£10,000 from the Legislature as a contribution to the expenditure of the war, "being justly proud of the action of His Majesty's Government in upholding the honour and plighted word of Great Britain."

Windward Islands.—£ 2,000 from the St. Lucia Legislative Council for the purchase of St. Lucia cocoa for the use of the Forces.

This is by no means an exhaustive list. The gifts, however, are a token of the fervour, devotion and loyalty of the British Colonies towards the august Empire. As H. M. the King Emperor rightly pointed out:—

"My peoples in the self-governing Dominions have shown beyond all doubt that they whole-heartedly endorse the grave decision which it was necessary to take. I am proud to be able to show to the world that my peoples overseas are as determined as the people of the United Kingdom to prosecute a just cause to a successful end."

THE RISE OF THE BALKANS

BY MR. N. M. MUZUMDAR, B.A., B. SC., (LOND.)

FIVE centuries of oppression and mis-rule by an "army of occupation." A long and a bitter night of darkness. At last a Balkan League. And then the day-break, and then—another struggle with another foe. This sums up the history of "one of the fairest regions of the world." The Ottoman Empire even in the height of its day, when it included the whole Balkan region and even Hungary, was nothing but a mass of the most diverse nations and fragments of nations four times as populous as the "army of occupation" that swayed over them. And the history of the Balkans is but the history of the unification and growth of these diverse fragments, too often and too long weakened by rivalries among themselves, into distinct and separate nationalities. It is the story of the retreat of Turkey from Europe.

The "grim, raw races" of the Balkans, as Mr. Lytton, the future Governor-General of India, once described them, are but the descendants of the ancient Greeks, Thracians and Ilyrians, together with the Aryan Slavs that crossed over the Danube in the fifth century, and the Turanian Bulgers who came from Central Asia in the seventh. In three centuries the immigrant invaders were absorbed, and in contact with the civilisation of Byzantium outgrew their barbarism. Four hundred years pass by, and they are thrust into darkness again by invaders from the South. Few scenes in human history impress one more profoundly than the night of 28th May, 1453 when Sultan Mahomet II, the greatest of the great Sultans, a young man of boundless ambition, ordered the storming of Constantinople. With the fall of Constantinople fell the last of the Cæsars, fell the Byzantium Empire, and fell also the light of that Empire, and the civilisation of those regions. It was the wreckage of the Slavic nations, and the beginning of the long night of Turkish darkness.

The fall of Constantinople established the Turkish Empire in Europe. With a strong foothold on Constantinople the Turkish armies overran the Balkans. Bulgaria was annexed. Servia became a Turkish Province. Albania followed in 1459. Bosnia fell in 1465. And Greece, the ancient land of arts and letters, suffered the same fate. The Turkish tide rolled on and on, and in two hundred years reached the gates of Vienna. Here, finally, it was checked. An Empire based on nothing but conquest had over-grown itself. Turkey was not a conquering nation capable of absorbing the conquered, or even being absorbed by them. Turkey was but a conquering *army*, and when conquest ceased, came the recoil and the demoralization. It has taken three centuries and a half from the defeat at Vienna for this demoralization and decadence to work itself out, and for the Turkish tide to recede from Vienna to the suburbs of Constantinople.

The supremacy of Turkey was always bound up with the maintenance of the Turks as a dominant caste. Any humanizing of the Turkish administration would have meant the destruction of that supremacy. The fight of the Balkan races was therefore a fight against an inhuman supremacy. It was not till a hundred years after the retreat from Vienna that the Treaty of Kainardji in 1775 placed Russia for the first time as the special protector of the Christian subjects of the Sultan. Austria, too, started "on her Eastern route." And the Austro-Russian move, even if not altogether dictated by reasons of humanity, was the dawn of a new day for the Balkans. It kindled the first sparks of insurrection among the Greeks and the Servians. Still, fifty years were to elapse before Greece could recover its long lost liberties, and a hundred years before a Servian king could declare the end of Turkish suzerainty. The reign of Sultan Abdul Hamid dragged down the Ottoman Empire further, and finally brought it to the position of a state that could not subsist but "by the toleration of Europe and the protection of at least one great Power."

The atrocity with which the Bulgarian revolt of 1876 was put down by Turkey roused at last the conscience of Europe. Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet on the Balkan horrors, caused a shudder that demanded immediate reform. The outburst in Europe roused Servia. Servia declared war on Turkey. Montenegro followed. But both were defeated, and only saved from being crushed out of existence by a Russian ultimatum to Turkey, the result being a return to the *status quo*. A long series of "conferences" met at Constantinople to "propose changes" in the administration of European Turkey. Turkey replied by proclaiming

a national constitution. And Russia, tired at length of European inaction, declared war herself. The Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78, severe and prolonged though it was, brought Russia almost within sight of Constantinople. Great Britain, however, as a great Moslem power, stopped this victorious advance by mobilising its army and sending its fleet across the Dardanelles. Russia concluded peace with Turkey at San Stefano, on the basis of the recognition of Servia, Montenegro and Roumania as independent principalities; a "big" Bulgaria as an autonomous principality of Turkey; and Bosnia and Herzegovina with free institutions under the protection of Austria and Russia. The Powers hurriedly met at Berlin, charged with the revision of the treaty of San Stefano, and presided over by Bismarck, "the honest broker" for all parties. The Berlin Congress summarily revised the treaty and the Treaty of Berlin that followed gave up the idea of a "big" Bulgaria, created instead another autonomous province of Turkey, Eastern Rumalia; made Bulgaria a tributary state of Turkey under a Prince elected by the people and confirmed by the Porte; and gave Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria, for the purpose of "maintaining order," to the bitter resentment of Russia. (The "honest broker" was only rewarding Austria for her neutrality in the Franco- Prussian war of 1870) Roumania, Servia and Montenegro were made sovereign States, and the Powers undertook to "use their good offices" to get Greece, Thessaly and Epirus. Bosnia, however, stood out against Austria till 1882, and Greece did not get Thessaly and part of Epirus till 1881. The Balkan States very soon attempted to revise the revision of the Powers. The Rumalian revolt of 1885 was followed by Bulgaria annexing Eastern Rumalia. Servia declared at once war on Bulgaria, and Greece threatened Turkey. The .concert of Europe was, however, strong enough to hold them back, and the Treaty of Berlin remained for thirty years the written constitution of the Balkans.

But there were two provinces of Turkey for which the Berlin Treaty was a piece of blank paper. All that the Powers could do for Armenia and Macedonia was to "press" the Porte for "reforms." From 1894 to 1896 terrible massacres took place in Armenia, and a scheme of reform was forthwith "presented" by the Powers. In 1897 Crete proclaimed union with Greece, and the Greece-Turkish war of that year followed. The defeated Greeks were only saved by the diplomatic compromise of the Powers, and Crete remained Turkish. The very next year, however, massacres broke out in Crete, and the British Vice-Consul in Candia was murdered. The British Admiral bombarded the town and practically ended Turkish suzerainty over the island. The Macedonians left outside the Berlin settlement revolted in 1903 to compel the intervention of the Powers—only to be put down with fire and sword. Austria and Russia once more urged reforms on Turkey to be carried out under the supervision of their agents. And an international demonstration in 1905 secured the appointment of an international finance Commission. The foreign officials had, however, no real power, and the Commission achieved little. The Treaty of Berlin, thus, while diminishing the Balkan possessions of the Sultan left enough material for future trouble. And diplomacy could neither solve the problems of the Balkans nor shelve them.

In 1908 Austria obtained permission to survey for a railway to the Sanjak of Novi Bazaar. The Austro-Russian harmony, that had been revived since 1897, ended. The meeting of King Edward and the Czar gave rise to another programme of Macedonian reform. But a crisis was looming over Turkey. The "Young Turks" had been working hard from Paris and London, pointing to the corruption and tyranny of the existing regime and the threatened partition of the country. As a result, in July 1908, the situation in Turkey underwent a dramatic change and a revolution broke out. The Young Turks proclaimed the national constitution of 1876, and threatened to march on Constantinople. Sultan Abdul Hamid yielded, and granted at length a Parliament.

The bloodless triumph of the Young Turks, the triumph of liberal ideas of "Justice, Fraternity and Equality," as appeared to be then, raised high hopes in Europe. Tyranny had at length been dethroned, and the old regime seemed to have gone to pieces once for all under the scorn and the wrath aroused by Enver and Niazi. The day after the revolution the *Tourkie Nouvelle*, the organ of the Ottoman Liberal Party, wrote:

"The cruel despotism, the ferocial oppression, and the savage tyranny under which the Ottoman nation has laboured for 32 years, have come to an end."

A new order of things seemed to have been established in a day in a land so long and bitterly tried. The "Committee of Union and Progress" set to work, set before itself the solution of the great problems of Turkey involving "the

peace and welfare of the present," and "the hope of the future," exhorted men of all ranks and races to forget the wrongs of the past, to accept the new order, Christians, Moslems, Israelites, to be *Ottomans* above all, and to sink all their local differences in the interest of *common* Ottoman nationality.—A lofty ambition, but a dream!

Von Moltke once wrote that "reform in Turkey consists above everything in externals, in names and in schemes." Hopes raised so high by the Young Turks soon fell to the ground. In less than a few months not even the name of the glorious July structure remained. The government of the country was placed under the direction of a "political club." And the same old terrorism survived the so-called "regeneration of Turkey." Step by step, the neo-Turks arrived at open war with the principles and ideas they had started with, till they, in direct and flagrant violation of the constitution, overthrew Kaimil Pasha, the great Grand Vizier, who had boldly announced to the *Matin* on New Year's Day:

> "We shall constitute a force which we will place at the service of Right, Justice and Humanity. We will follow in the footsteps of France, and like her, within our own special domain of Islam, we will teach the brotherhood of peoples and respect for the rights of others."

On the 5th of October 1908 in a manifesto to his people and to Europe, Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria threw off the suzerainty of Turkey and established an independent kingdom. In the same month Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Bitter first fruits of the Young Turkish rule! The Committee of "Union and Progress," though indignant at the loss of three great provinces, accepted the inevitable, and consoled themselves with a financial indemnity from Austria and Bulgaria, the Powers acquiescing in the new arrangement. Crete followed suit in tearing up the Treaty of Berlin, and proclaimed once more union with France. Such was the beginning of the new regime that promised so much. Its rigorous policy of centralisation from Salonica, far from improving the administration irritated the Balkan nationalities. And the principle of the fusion of the non-Moslem races into a common Ottoman nationality soon turned out to be an enterprise as chimerical as dangerous.

The quarrels and the blunders of the new reformers were an admirable opportunity for the Sultan. In April 1909 a revolution broke out in Constantinople, and the Young Turks fled. But the Macedonian troops remained loyal to the new Constitution, and in a few days Shevket Pasha fought his way into Constantinople. Abdul Hamid was deposed and his long imprisoned brother was brought on the Ottoman throne. The Young Turks gained a victory, but threw away its warning. They roughly disarmed Macedonia, goaded Albania into revolt, left unpunished the perpetrators of another massacre in Armenia, and instead of reforming the administration of the various provinces centralised themselves into a military government under German tutelage. Europe was disappointed in the new Rulers of Turkey. The reforms once confidently expected did not come. And the Balkan States were driven at length to take matters in their own hands.

Early in 1912 Bulgaria, Servia and Greece formed the "Balkan League," it is supposed under the influence of the able Greek statesman M. Venizelos, and on the basis of a defensive alliance. The weakness of Turkey after her war with Italy was an opportunity to free Macedonia at last from Turkish rule. The Turkish butchery of the Bulgarians at Kochana and of the Serbs in Berane roused the war-fever in Bulgaria and Macedonia. On the 1st of October 1912 the armies of the League were suddenly mobilised, Turkey anticipating the League by a few hours. Montenegro had a frontier dispute with Turkey, and on the 8th Montenegro declared war on her. The great Powers hurried, and two days later presented a collective note to Turkey to discuss immediately with the Sublime Porte the "question of reforms" under the Berlin Treaty of 1878. Turkey replied that reforms could only be introduced without foreign interference. On the 14th of the month, the Balkan Allies presented a note to her to grant within six months reforms in Macedonia in accordance with the Berlin treaty, to be carried out under their supervision and that of the Powers. Turkey replied three days later by declaring war on Bulgaria and Servia leaving Greece out, which, however, immediately declared war on her. The Balkans blazed up, and the great Powers could only sit round the conflagration agreeing to "localise the trouble."

Six days after the declaration of war the Bulgarians and Servians defeated the Turks at Kirk, Killise and Kumavoso. In twelve days Turkey lost the whole of Thrace. In a month Macedonia was lost by the surrender of Salonika, the "gem of the Ægean." By the middle of November, the Greek fleet had captured most of the Ægean islands, and the Bulgarians advanced

to Chataldja, within twenty miles of Constantinople. The dread of cholera, however, stopped the Bulgarian Commander. Constantinople was saved, and Nazim Pasha seizing his opportunity strengthened the lines at Chataldja. A Peace Conference met in London, and the war was concluded by the Treaty of London of the 30th of May 1913, Turkey ceding to the Balkan Allies all territories across the Enos-Midia line together with Crete, and leaving the future of Albania and the Ægean Islands to the Powers.

Hardly was the ink dry on the Treaty when war clouds gathered again owing to disagreements between the Allies as to the division of the ceded territories. On June 29th 1913, the second Balkan War broke out. Bulgaria suddenly attacked its allies. Servia and Greece took up the challenge. In a week they crossed the Bulgarian frontier. On July 10th Roumania intervened to enforce peace, invaded Bulgaria, and threatened to march on Sofia. The plight of the "Allies" encouraged Turkey to cross the Enos-Midia line and re-occupy Adrianople. Bulgaria was brought on its knees. A Peace Conference met at Bucharest on July 30th, and on August 30th peace was finally signed by the Balkan States delimiting their new frontiers. The result of the two wars was that Turkey lost Macedonia, Thrace and most of the Ægean Islands. Albania became autonomous. Macedonia was divided between Greece, Bulgaria and Servia, Montenegro getting a part of Servian territory and Roumania a part of Bulgarian. Bulgaria annexed also Thrace to the Enos-Midia line, excluding Adrianople. The settlement thus brought Bulgaria on the Ægean. Servia obtained 15,000 sq. miles of new territory, almost doubling herself, and thus relieving herself to some extent from the economic subjugation of Austria, though still left, alone of all the countries of Europe (excepting Switzerland) with no access to the sea. The map of the Balkans was completely recast.

The expulsion of the Turkish Empire from Europe, though it did not bring about the bigger and dreaded scramble for its territory, brought before Europe the problem of a great Balkanic Federation, and the proplem of the antagonism between the Teuton and the Slav. Already after the war there was talk of a Federation. A Bulgarian Foreign Minister even announced that a confederation was coming and that, if she reformed herself, Turkey too might be in it. A strong confederation would have checked to some extent the conflict between the Teuton and the Slav. But the retreat of Turkey from Europe meant a "chance" for Austria-Hungary, a chance to go further "on her Eastern Route." And before a Balkanic confederation could be formed Austria manœuvred for a dash. The Austrian idea of a South Slavonic Empire, of which the recognized exponent was the late Crown Prince, was revived. The Crown Prince paid for it with his life. But Austria was determined to go on.

Austrian policy, as revealed in the *entente* with Russia in 1897, had been to put off the day when the fate of European Turkey should be decided. That *entente* broke up in 1908 when she finally annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina to the bitter resentment of Russia. After the Balkan wars, however, and especially after the new arrangements, the day could no longer be put off. And the Austrian statesmen of 1914 saw in the youth and exhaustion of the Balkan states a chance to push ahead, to reach Novi Bazaar, perchance to get another thorny throne, and come out on the Ægean. Now was the time to strike, she thought. And she struck,—struck Servia with an impossible ultimatum, with what consequences the future and the recoil will tell. Servia's triumph in the Balkan wars had whetted the appetite of Austria. But it was the triumph of a state that had helped to liberate the Balkans, and end the long Turkish night. A wanton attack, a ruthless attack on a state exhausted by wars in such a cause. Cruel fate that at the dawn of a new day that state should be faced with another struggle, this time with another foe.

There is a close and perhaps a fateful parallelism between the Austrian situation of to-day and the Turkish situation of yesterday. In two-thirds of the Austro-Hungarian Empire the Austrian is a stranger. Of the fifty millions in the Empire nearly twenty-five millions are Slavs, including five million Serbs on the Austrian side of the Danube. Bohemians, Hungarians, Poles, Germans, Magayars, Croatians, Dalmatians, Ruthenians, Italians, Czechs, Slovaks, Rumanians, Slovenians and Slavs,—a mosaic of races! A fragile mass! The fate of Turkey yesterday may be the fate of Austria to-morrow.—*Behind* the Austrian aggression one did not fail to perceive the shadows of other arms. Addressing a meeting of Servians in Paris many years ago, General Skobeleff, the hero of the Russo-Turkish War, remarked: "We are the victims of a foreigner's intrigue. Do you know who he is? It is the German. Never forget it. Our enemy is the German. The battle between the German and the Slav is inevitable. It will be long, bloody and terrible, but the Slav will triumph."—Prophetic words!

THE CZAR, THE LATE KING OF ROUMANIA AND THE NEW KING.

SOLDIERS OF THE CRESCENT WHO ARE UNDER GERMAN INFLUENCE: TURKISH INFANTRY ON THE MARCH.

SOLDIERS OF THE CRESCENT.

GENERAL L. VON SANDARS.
German Generalissimo of Turkey.

ENVER BEY.
The Firebrand of Turkey.

KWANG-SU, 16 YEARS OLD, WITH HIS FATHER.
THE LAST OF THE CHINESE EMPERORS
AND HIS FATHER.

CHINA: A SKETCH OF ITS HISTORY*

BY PROF. K. B. RAMANATHAN, M.A.

Unlike the Hindu, the Chinaman has a great regard for history, and to preserve authenticated accounts of the chief historic events of the empire has been one of the recognised duties of the Government. We have Chinese history preserving names of emperors and conquerors and describing remarkable events from a time anterior to that of Noah's flood. We do not feel disposed to bestow on our readers the whole tediousness of recounting the rise and decay of various dynasties or the exploits of particular kings. A sketch in the broadest outline of the salient features of Chinese history must suffice for the present purpose.

EARLY CHINA.

The people are supposed to have migrated from a region on the southern shore of the Caspian Sea about the 23rd century B.C. The language and the religious and social institutions seem to show Akkadian affinities. Originally nomads, the Chinese betook themselves to agriculture on their occupation of the rich plains watered by the Yanktse and the Hoangho. From a tribal system a vast feudal system was evolved and the subdivision of fiefs left very little power to the liege-lord. Hoangti put down the various rulers and proclaimed himself sole ruler, saying there could be but one ruler in a nation as but one sun in the sky. To secure China from the inroads of the Tartars he began the construction of the famous Chinese Wall which was completed in 211 B. C. He patronised astronomy and revised the calendar and abolished many useless ceremonies. In his plan of unification of the empire he incurred the hostility of the *literati* whom he put down with a high hand, burning all books except those on medicine, agriculture, &c. The successors of Hoangti were not equal to the task of preserving intact the inheritance left them and principalities sprang up here and there till the old unity was restored by Kaoti of the Han dynasty.

86—73 B. C.

In this reign, means of communication were improved, the first suspension bridges constructed, and the effects of the vandalism of Hoangti minimised by the encouragement of the efforts of the *literati* to restore the destroyed classics. It was another Han—Mingti—who was instrumental in introducing Buddhism into China where it has firmly established its hold.

58—76 A. D.

From the fall of the last Han to the rise of the first T'ang is an interval of nearly 400 years (220-618 A. D.) The empire split up into three and later on into six principalities which waged internecine wars with one another. The only interesting event of the period is Fahsien's journey to India, begun about 400 A.D. and lasting for fourteen years, at the end of which he returned with a library of books and manuscripts utilised in the record of his travels. With the rise of the T'ang dynasty began the golden age of Chinese Literature, and there was then also an attempt at revivalism of the teachings of Confucius which had been thrown into the shade by the new gospel of Buddha. We hear now of the Korean question of the Japanese interference with the Korean affairs. Taotsong the greatest of the T'angs tried unsuccessfully to subdue the refractory Koreans, but his successor Kaotsong or rather his Empress Wu had better success. The Japanese had been invited by the king of Korea to help him. The Empress Wu threw all her energies into the struggle and had the combined fleet of the Japanese and the Koreans destroyed.

627—650 A. D.

650—684 A.D

FROM THE FALL OF THE T'ANGS TO THE RISE OF THE MINGS.

Towards the close of the reign of the Tangs, the Tartars began to make inroads into the southern empire. After varying fortunes they succeeded in wresting from the reigning dynasty all China north of the Yangtse. In something less than two hundred years they were in their turn driven by the allied Kin Tartars, the progenitors of the reigning family. The *Sungs* who bore sway over southern China were content to be vassals of these Tartar conquerors. They steadily maintained peace and, whenever threatened by the neighbouring tribes bought them off. Such inglorious peace made them altogether forget the art of war, and they as well the

960—1278 A.D.

* This sketch which had originally been carried down to the year 1900 has since been brought up-to-date.

vigorous Kin Tartars fell an easy prey when Jengiz and his Tartar hordes invaded China. Kublai Khan was the most famous of this new Mongol dynasty, and his magnificent court has been described by the Venetian traveller Marco Polo who visited him about the last quarter of the 13th century. He had trouble with the Japanese who made piratical raids on the coasts of China and Korea and failing to settle matters by a peaceful mission, sent fleets against them which proved equally unsuccessful. In this monarch's reign Catholic missionaries carried the good news of salvation through Jesus to the benighted Mongols. The Nestorian monks had gone as early as 635 to convert the Chinese to Christianity. In spite of official discountenance and persecution they seem to have had some success. In the palmy days of the T'ang dynasty, in the reign of Taotsong, the Pope ever anxious to spread the influence of the Church sent an embassy to the court of China where the Papal envoy found accredited representatives from Persia and Nepaul. In the reign of Mangu Khan (father of Kublai Khan), John dePlano Carpini and Friar Rubiquis see the Khan and are favourably received by him. They find Nestorian Christianity in a bad way and their own teachings rather perfunctorily listened to, because of Mangu and his courtiers being maudlin half the time from drink. When Marco Polo visited Kublai Khan, he presented letters and credentials from the Pope, and sure enough there were missionaries who came with him to spread the light of the gospel among the heathen Chinese. Kublai Khan being succeeded by weak successors, the Chinese break themselves lose from the Mongol yoke under the lead of Hangwa.

1260—1295 A. D.

The Mings.

During Hangwa's reign the Hanlin College—the Chinese Haileybury—undergoes thorough repair and a similar college is established at Nanking, the southern capital. Another memorable event of the reign is the codification of the Chinese laws which conferred an immense benefit on the people. The *Mings*, as the members of the dynasty founded by Hangwa are known, continue to bear sway over China till they are succeeded by the Manchus—the present reigning family. In the reign of Chengte(1506-22) of the Ming dynasty, the Portuguese arrived off the southern coast of China and D'Ardade, commander of a small squadron, was well received by the authorities at Canton, and proceeding to Peking remained there as amateur ambassador for some years. The Portuguese at Ningpo and elsewhere conducted themselves in an outrageous manner, and D'Ardade was arrested and imprisoned and, after undergoing six years of imprisonment, was summarily beheaded. The rather disagreeable experience the Chinese had of the dealings with the Portuguese made them refuse permission to having such missionaries as Xavier and Michel Roger admitted into China. But Ricci who arrived at Macao in 1582 had greater success. His wide sympthies, great learning and Christian charity won him respect and consideration from all classes of the Chinese and he was favourably received by the Emperor at Peking. Under his skilful guidance Christianity made considerable progress and we hear of conversions of the *literatus* Hsü and of his grand-daughter. About this time, *i. e.*, in the last decade of the 16th century, we hear once again of a conflict between Japan and China in connection with the suzerainty over Korea. The question of the Japanese supremacy had fallen into the background, and the influence of the Chinese had become paramount ever since the Mings assisted the *Ni* dynasty to establish itself on the Korean throne. Hideyoshi, a Japanese General, taking advantage of the internal feuds of Korea, advanced across the peninsula and made himself master of Seoul (1592). The Koreans appealed to the Chinese for help. The Chinese accordingly landed a large force which was defeated by the Japanese General. But a decided Chinese victory near Pingyang and the sudden death of Hideyoshi as he was preparing a fresh expedition restored peace between the two countries.

Wanli's long and prosperous reign may be called the flicker of the Mings before their final extinction by the Manchus. These latter had settled in the north of China and had generally acknowledged the supremacy of the emperor. Under Nurhachu and Tientsung the contest between the Manchus and the Chinese went on with varying fortunes and it ended in favour of the Manchus.

The Manchus.

The first Manchu Emperor who ruled over a united China was Shunchih. In his reign two European embassies arrived at Peking—the Dutch and the Russian. Their reception was not encouraging. They were asked to *kowtow* to the Emperor on entering his presence. The Dutchman yielded and was permitted to come to the country once in eight years with not more than a hundred in a company, twenty of whom might attend the Emperor's court. The contumacious Russians—because they would not *kowtow*—were not granted these

doubtful privileges. In the next reign of K'anghsi, the extension of the eastern frontier of Russia and the erection of fortifications and entrenchments at Albazin on the upper course of the Amur made the emperor realise the danger he might incur if he should allow these pushing neighbours of his go on unmolested, and he sent accordingly a Chinese army which demolished the fortifications and marched to Peking as prisoners, the Russian occupants of the forts. In 1689, by the treaty of Nerchinsk, it was arranged that Russia should keep to the northern side of the river and should not disturb the peace of its southern shores. The liberal tolerance of K'anghsi procured for the Christians many privileges, but unseemly disputes between the Jesuits and the Dominicans that prevailed then were calculated to rouse the scorn of the heathen. After the death of K'anghsi the Christians began to lose favour at court. The arrival of foreign embassies gained for them nothing but trouble and disaster. There were in 1727 two embassies, one from Russia and another from Portugal, headed respectively by Count Sava Vladislavitche and Done Mitello Souza Menzes, each eager to get rid of ceremonial forms which he thought were derogatory to his character as ambassador from his sovereign. The Jesuits incurred the displeasure of the Chinese as they were suspected to have been at the bottom of the mischief. On receiving a deputation of the Jesuits the Emperor said: "You tell me that your law is not a false one. I believe you; if I thought that it was false what would prevent me from destroying your churches and from driving you out of the country?........ But what would you say if I were to send a troop of bonzes and lamas into your country in order to preach their doctrines? How, would you receive them?.....The converts you have made already recognise nobody but you, and in a time of trouble they would listen to no other voice but yours." The missionaries thus attempting to establish an *imperium in imperio* were not liked either by the government or the people. Some trouble in the empire, absence of vigorous central authority must suffice to let loose popular fury against ill-appreciated, unwelcome disturbers of traditional beliefs and faiths.

1735—1796 A.D.

The regents that Kien' lung had called to help him in the government were not favorably disposed towards the missionaries and under their instigation severe persecutions began in Fukkien against the Christians.

It was in this reign that the first English plenipotentiary was admitted to an audience of the Chinese Emperor. Lord Macartney had been instructed not to yield on the point of the *kowtow* unless a Chinese official of equal rank with himself would *kowtow* before the portrait of the English king. As no Chinese official could be found to submit to this, the *kowtow* etiquette was not insisted upon in the case of the English ambassador. No commercial privileges resulted from Lord Macartney's negotiations. Taking advantage of the ambassador's ignorance of the Chinese language, the Mandarins had inscribed, on the boat that carried Lord Macartney and his presents to the Emperor, the legend that it bore tribute from England to the Emperor. The contemptuous attitude of the Chinese is due to the fact that the 'Outer Barbarians' have always appeared as suppliants for favours and they as dispensers of privileges for which they have not asked anything in return. In the next reign the missionaries and the foreigners generally met with no friendly treatment. A less able man than his father Kien'lung, Kia'king was more punctilious about external marks of respect to himself. As Count Goloyken in charge of a Russian embassy could not bring himself to *kowtow* to the emperor he returned the way he came. Lord Amherst, the English Ambassador, returned from China without seeing the Emperor under very similar circumstances.

MODERN CHINA.

When the Charter of the East India Company expired in 1834, Lord Napier, was appointed to represent British interests in China. But sticklers for Chinese official form would not recognise his position and would not even allow his arriving at Canton without a formal permission received through the Hong merchants. The restraints on English trade only increased in severity, and the appointment of Lord Napier, far from promoting trade interests, acted in just the contrary direction. His death and the appointment of Captain Elliott to his place did not improve matters. To add to the perplexities of the situation, angry discussion began about the English traders forcing opium on the Chinese and demoralising them. The lofty pretensions of the Chinese Commissioner Lin who was specially appointed to settle the business were not likely to bring matters to a peaceful issue. He claimed the right to punish Europeans for crimes committed on Chinese soil and was highly incensed against the English when certain Englishmen guilty of rioting were not handed over to him.

The inevitable was not long in coming. A naval engagement was fought at Chuanpi on the 3rd November 1839, many Chinese junks being sunk and destroyed. The Celestials, though rather slow to be convinced, came to see that the gods were on the side of big warships and disciplined soldiery, and the rapid fall of Amoy, Tinghai, Chenhai and Ningpo made the Emperor send Commissioners for peace. By the terms of the treaty Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, Shanghai were thrown open to trade, Hongkong was ceded to the British Crown as also 21 million dolars as compensation to the victors for their loss.

The prostration which followed on the conclusion of the war encouraged the turbulent and disaffected portion of the Chinese society. Secret societies like the *Triad* and the *White Lily* began their treasonous agitation against the reigning dynasty but they were promptly put down. The Cantonese continued to give trouble to the English, but energetic steps taken by Sir John Davis brought the Chinese to their senses. Mr. Alcock was equally successful at Shanghai. The second English war was due to the boarding by a party of Mandarins and their escort of the British-owned lorcha "Arrow." The crew were carried off by the Chinese and the English flag was hauled down. A demand for the return of the crew not being complied with in a proper manner, reprisal followed, and the Chinese Governor making a proclamation calling upon the Chinese to have the barbarians exterminated, the English declared war. A naval action near Fatshan in which a number of Chinese junks were taken or burnt, and the assault and capture of Canton virtually put an end to the war. But the Taku forts had to be taken and advance made to the neighbourhood of the capital before a satisfactory understanding was arrived at with the Court at Peking. The treaty of Tientsin which concluded the war threw open the ports of Newchwang, Tengchow, Formosa, Swatow, and Kiungchow, legalised opium traffic and recognised the Europeans as civilised beings. The terms had been unwillingly agreed to and when the English took steps to have a formal ratification of the treaty by the emperor, the unfriendly disposition of the Chinese was shown by the sudden fire opened upon the English ships that accompanied the Ambassador to the mouth of the Peiho. France was in the same predicament as England, ratification having been refused to a treaty with that power, and the two governments accordingly agreed to make a joint invasion of the "Middle Kingdom." The Taku forts were attacked and taken, and an advance was made as far as Tungchow. Here a party of Englishmen including Parker and Loch were taken prisoners. The allies then attacked the Chinese in great strength at Changchiawan and defeated them and then advanced upon the capital. The Emperor had quitted Peking and gone to Jehol on hearing of the near approach of the barbarian army. The taking of Yuan-ming-Yuan, the favourite palace of the Emperor, the setting on fire of the summer palace, the surrender of the northern gate of the city followed. Prince Kung saw the futility of further opposition, and by his efforts the demands of the two powers were granted. The Emperor that reigned all these troublesome years was known as Hsienfeng. The fourth son of the previous Emperor, he was chosen though his next brother Prince Kung was better known to the public as the President of the Tsungli Yamen (The Board of Foreign Affairs). On his death in 1861 he was succeeded by the Crown Prince who assumed the name of Tunchih. Prince Kung succeeded in getting rid of the Jehol faction that was anti-foreign in spirit, and in appointing as regents the two Dowager-Empresses, the mother of the Emperor and the principal widow of the late Emperor.

We must now refer to the Taiping rebellion which shook the power of the Empire, and but for the timely help of the despised barbarians, might have effected a revolution and change of dynasties. As early as the beginning of 1850, *i.e.*, the year when Hsienfeng ascended the throne, the secret societies mentioned earlier had roused the seditious spirits of China, and owing to the industrious propaganda of the agents of the societies outbreaks occurred in which the government troops were not always successful. The appearance of a leader in the person of Hung gave a new impetus to the movement. He had come under the influence of a Christian pastor and created for himself a new faith calculated to favour revolutionary doctrines. He succeeded in spreading this new faith of his in Kwantung and Kwangsi and had a great following. He captured Nanking in the beginning of 1853 and proclaimed it capital of the new Taiping (Peace) dynasty which he believed he was ordained to establish. The new movement spread from province to province till Anhui, Honan, Shantung and southern Chihli were overrun by the Taiping troops. Now Li-Hung-Chang drew public notice to himself by the patriotic attempts he made to check the rebellious movements. His efforts were appreciated

THE CHINESE EMPRESS.
From a Drawing by a Native Artist.

THE DOWAGER-EMPRESS OF CHINA.
From a Chinese Drawing.

YUAN SHI-KAI.

DR. SUN YAT SEN.

by the Chinese generalissimo, Tseng Kwofan, who enlisted Li and his men under his immediate command. Li showed himself worthy of the high opinion entertained of him by Tseng and was advanced from one high office to another. The complications of the Chinese Government with the English and the French made it impossible for the former to devote all their energies to crush the rebels. The rebels grew troublesome, especially as they were under the able guidance of Hung's faithful Lieutenant, Chung Wang. The war with the English had shown to Li the superiority of the foreign military systems to those of China, and he therefore sought the help of the foreigners to put down this menace to orderly government in China. The American Ward with his force styled the 'Ever Victorious Army' and after Ward's death and his successor's defection, Major Gordon, were invited to lead the Chinese and the rebels were easily put down after some stiff fights at Kunshan and Soochow. The Nienfei and the Muhammadan rebellions were ground swells that agitated China after the storm of the Taiping rebellion had spent its rage. They were put down rather from disunion among the leaders than by the energetic action of the Chinese Government. They were more or less local in character and did not materially interfere with the usual routine of the central Government at Peking.

The only events of importance we have still to mention in Tungchih's reign are the Tientsin massacre, the Audience question and the Formosan difficulty. The first was due to an outburst of ignorant fury against the supposed atrocities of the missionaries. The Chinese have much the same opinion of the Christians that the Romans had of them as practisers of the Galilean superstition. The Chinamen believe that Europeans use the eyes and hearts of diseased infants for medicinal purposes and the many deaths that occurred now led the townsmen of Tientsin to give credence to the folly.*

The ladies of the orphanage were attacked and killed as also the French Consul. The Chinese officials were lukewarm in punishing those guilty of the outrage. Li Hung Chang was sent to the place and he made proper enquiries and had the culprits punished, though the populace were inclined to make heroes of them. France was 'sopited' by the payment of 400,000 taels as a compensation for the murder of the sisters and a special embassy to express regret for the murderous outbreak. A little earlier there was a similar outbreak against Protestant missionaries at Yangchow, and by the energetic action of Mr. Medhurst sufficient reparation was made.

The Audience question was another cause of difference between the Chinese and the foreigners. The Chinese theory is that the emperor is, as he is styled, the Son of Heaven; and he can have therefore no equals. All other emperors and kings can be only his tributaries. And representatives from these must show proper respect to this liegelord of the sovereigns of the earth. This theory, flattering as it may be to Chinese vanity, is not liked by other powers, and the history of foreign diplomacy is but a history of the attempts made by the several representatives to secure for their respective sovereigns recognition of an equal rank with the Chinese Emperor. The treaty of Tientsin had for one of its articles the treatment of the European ambassadors as representatives of sovereigns equal in rank with the Emperor. The absence of the Emperor's Court at Jehol and the long minority of Tungchih did not bring the question of audience before the Emperor as a matter of practical politics. Now that Tungchih had his court at Peking and had taken to himself an Empress (a public announcement of his having ceased to be under tutelage), the question of granting an interview to the embassies from the

* That there was *some* foundation for the crude belief, the following quotation from the official despatch of the United States minister will prove: "At many of the principal places in China open to foreign residence, the Sisters of Charity have established institutions each of which appears to combine in itself a foundling hospital and orphan asylum. Finding that the Chinese were averse to placing children in their charge, the managers of these institutions offered a certain sum per head for all the children placed under their control given to them, it being understood that a child once in their asylum, no parent, relative or guardian, could claim or exercise any control over it. It has for some time been asserted by the Chinese, and believed by most of the non-Catholic foreigners residing here, that the system of paying bounties induced the kidnapping of children for these institutions for the sake of the reward. It is also asserted that the priests or sisters or both have been in the habit of holding out inducements to have children brought to them in the last stages of illness for the purpose of being baptised *in articulo mortis*. In this way many children have been taken to these establishments in the last stages of disease, baptised there, and soon after taken away dead. All these acts, together with the secrecy and seclusion which appear to be a part and parcel of the regulations which govern institutions of this character everywhere, have created suspicions in the minds of the Chinese and these suspicions have engendered an intense hatred against the sisters." [pp.604-5 Vol. III of Boulger's History of China, 1884].

different courts of Europe could not be put off. But the ingenuity of the Chinese politicians tried to whittle the significance of the ceremony by receiving the ambassadors in "the Pavilion of Purple Light," a hall not befitting the dignity of ambassadors from powers claiming equality with the Emperor, as it is the place where new year receptions are granted to the outer tribes and where wrestling and military exercises are performed for the amusement of the Emperor. The reception ceremony emphasised the condescension of the Emperor in according them admission to his presence. "In accordance with the prearranged programme, the ministers advanced bowing, and an address in Chinese having been read, Prince Kung fell on his knees and went through the form of receiving the message vouchsafed by the Emperor." Altogether the Chinese succeeded in persuading the European ministers in taking their Emperor at their own valuation.

The Formosan difficulty rose out of the Japanese sailors being cruelly put to death by the inhabitants of Formosa when they were shipwrecked on the island. The Chinese would neither punish the islanders nor give compensation to the Japanese. The landing of a Japanese force and the despatch of a special envoy made the Chinese reconsider their position, and through the good offices of Sir Thomas Wade, the Japanese agreed to withdraw on the payment of 500,000 taels. On the death of Tungchih on the 12th January 1875 by small-pox began the eventful

REIGN OF EMPEROR KWANGHSU.

An infant son of the younger uncle of the late Emperor, he was chosen by the Dowager-Empresses, widows of Hsienfeng, in preference to the grown-up son of Prince Kung, as the succession of the latter would have given them no chance of reigning as Regents. The new Emperor was adopted as the son not of the late Emperor but of Hsienfeng, and the Dowager-Empresses thus retained the position of mothers to the young occupant of the throne and had an agreeable prospect of a long regency. The ordinary course would have been to adopt an heir to the last Emperor and his widow would have to act as regent. Tungchih must have had adoption made to him and his widow should have had the regency. But the old ladies Tsi An, the mother of Tungchih and Tsi Thsi, having tasted the sweets of power did not like giving place to the widow of Tungchih. So the before-mentioned departure from the ordinary course of adoption and arrangement of the regency.

The first difficulty of the new reign was the murder of Mr. Margary who formed a member of a commercial mission sent by the Viceroy of India to Yunnan. Mr. Margary arrived in advance of the party at Manwyne, a town within the Chinese frontier, and he was hospitably received by the officials. On the next day, while he was visiting a mineral spring in the neighbourhood, he was brutally assaulted and slain. Sir Thomas Wade addressed the Tsungli Yamen on the subject and insisted that a joint commission of English and Chinese officials should be made to investigate the matter with a view to find the culprits. The Tsungli Yamen were in an obstructive mood. The anti-foreign spirit had rather increased than otherwise since the treaty last concluded after the attack on Peking. After endless delays proper officials were appointed and investigations were carried on, and an understanding was come to between the aggrieved English and the Chinese and the Chefoo convention was concluded. Additional ports to trade were opened; regulations with the *likin* tax were placed on a proper footing; and a Chinese ambassador specially appointed for the purpose proceeded with a letter of apology from the Emperor to the Queen.

The next difficulty was in connection with Tongking. The French evinced after the war of 1870 an enthusiasm for colonial expansion, and Saigon which the French had captured in 1858 served as a basis from which they attempted to bring the neighbouring province under their influence. One or two filibustering expeditions were sent and Hanoi the capital was taken. The king of the province represented to his feudal lord at Peking these attempts of the French. Li Hung Chang suggested some peaceful adjustment of the claims of the aggressive French, and after some further attacks on and occupation of some towns by the French, a convention was drawn up by which France agreed to respect and, in case of need, to protect the southern frontier of China, and China undertook to withdraw her troops from Tongking. The convention did not put an end to the war as there was some misunderstanding as to the precise date when the Chinese troops were to be withdrawn. The war lingered on for some time longer with no distinct success on either party. At last peace was concluded between the powers on the 9th June 1885, pretty much in the way suggested by Li Hung Chang a year earlier.

Korea in the far north was the next scene of difficulty. The question of suzerainty over Korea was a matter of dispute between Japan and China. Japan

according to certain authorities and China according to certain other authorities had the earlier claims on Korea's fealty. We need not stop to decide the question. Ever since the help given by the sovereigns of the Ming dynasty to establish the Ni line in Korea, there was a recognition of the supreme position of China. The Emperor of China used to give the King of Korea his patent of royalty, and an annual mission used to proceed to Peking from Seoul bearing specified tribute and receiving in return the calender prepared under the imperial auspices. Notable events occurring in the court of Peking were communicated to the Korean king who would send respectful messages of condolence or congratulation to the liege lord. The Japanese, who had asserted and made good-like claims on Korea found that latterly the vassal power was getting refractory, and when the change of government in Japan was announced by a Japanese embassy to the Korean court in 1868 and invitation made for renewal of ancient friendship and vassalage, an insolent repudiation was made of such pretensions to suzerainty. When a Japanese man-of-war was fired upon by the Koreans in 1875, an appeal was made to China as the superior power. China in a shortsighted hurry to escape such responsibility disclaimed any control over Korea, and the first Japanese treaty with Korea was concluded in 1876. The preamble to the treaty recognised Korea as a sovereign power and China was willing to wink at the matter. In 1882 because of the anti-Japan intrigues of the Korean King's father an attack was made on the Japanese legation at Seoul, and it was with difficulty that the Japanese escaped to the coast. The successful intriguer was now supreme and the king was made a prisoner. On Li Hung Chang's hearing of the outrage he sent a fleet of iron clads under Ma and suppressed the riots and the Japanese Government re-established their legation. So long as the mischievous father of the Korean king was at liberty peace was impossible, and he was accordingly removed from Korea and brought to Peking. Japan now concluded a convention which gave her the right to station troops for the protection of the Japanese in that country. Two years hence another convention had to be concluded because of a repetition of the troubles of 1882. The Korean mischief-maker had contrived to quit Peking, and the Japanese legation had to be reinstated by an avenging force. The convention required that both China and Japan should withdraw their troops within four months of the signature of the treaty, and that neither of the powers should send troops to Korea without informing the other power of the fact. This virtually conceded to the Japanese a position of equality with China in matters relating to Korea.

When such outbreaks were frequent in Korea the neighbouring power of Russia expressed impatience with a state of affairs and threatened a move southwards. It was to check such a move that the English temporarily occupied Port Hamilton. A peaceful state of affairs supervening, the English evacuated Port Hamilton on condition that no other power should get it and the Chinese Government got an assurance from the Russian minister that his country would not under any circumstances interfere with Korea.

In 1894 the followers of the Eastern doctrine rose against the Roman Catholics, and the force sent by the Korean king was not able to put down the outbreak. An appeal was made by the king to Peking, and the Chinese in disregard of the treaty of 1884 sent troops to Korea without informing Japan. The Mikado's Government sent an army to Korea as a protest against this action of China. In spite of all that the Japanese did to conciliate the Chinese, they would not concede to the rival power any claim to interfere with the internal affairs of Korea and would not accede to the proposals of reform made by Japan. Any further importation of troops into Korea, said the Japanese, would be construed as an act of war. The Chinese did not mind the threat, and there were warships sent with Chinese troops and the Japanese declared war. The Chinese, though they had provoked the war, were not well prepared to meet the enemy on anything like equal terms. The battle of Asan, the siege of Pingyang, the naval engagement at the Yalu river and the assault on Port Arthur showed the decisive superiority of the Japanese both on sea and land. The Chinese came to see the wisdom of arranging terms of peace with the conqueror after some further defeats. Li Hung Chang went on the humiliating mission of peace and agreed on behalf of China to grant to Japan the Liaotung peninsula, Formosa and the Pescadores and a war indemnity of 200,000,000 taels. An appeal made to the European powers made Russia, Germany and France intervene against the cession of Liaotung, and Japan had to forego the best fruits of her victory. A *quid pro quo* was demanded by the European powers for their timely intervention. Russia demanded the right of carrying the Siberian railway through Manchuria with a branch line to Moukden and Port Arthur. France was for the Chinese meeting the Tonking railway at

the frontier and continuing it as far as Nanning Fu in Kwangsi. Germany contented herself with some mining and financial privileges.

Ever since the outbreak of the Taiping rebellion, it came to be recognised that the Celestials had much to learn from the Barbarians with regard to the manufacture of warlike weapons and the training of soldiers. Li Hung Chang, as far-seeing a statesman as China has ever had, was for opening arsenals and strengthening the navy and otherwise preparing China to meet her rivals on equal terms. He was further induced to persist in such a course of reform because of the huge strides the neighbouring kingdom had taken in this direction. Attempts were made to open up railways and establish a company of merchant marines under Government auspices. Of a piece with these reforms was the opening of a modern college at Peking so early as 1866 when European professors were appointed to teach mathematics and kindred sciences to the Chinese youths. This reform being in advance of the age was not a great success. In 1887 a practical step was taken at the request of the Tsungli Yamen of including mathematics as one of the subjects to be brought up at the competitive examinations. These changes were distasteful to a large body of conservative Chinamen, and as these reform movements were associated in the popular mind with the mischievous meddlesomeness of the missionaries, there were published and circulated from Hunan, the most conservative of provinces, a series of placards accusing European missionaries of every species of crime. The old accusation of kidnapping children for using their eyes and entrails for medicinal purposes was revived. Riots broke out in several places, churches were demolished, the houses of the missionaries wrecked and looted. Two British subjects, one a missonary and another an officer of the Maritime Customs, were slain. The British Minister's representations to the Tsungli Yamen proved unavailing, and the mover of all the mischief was pronounced by the authorities to be a wild irresponsible creature whose actions could not be taken seriously. But the edict of the Emperor exhorting his subjects to better behaviour and the war with Japan put an end to this anti-missionary crusade for some time. But with the conclusion of the war, riots began in Szechuan and Fukkien and missionaries were attacked and slain. The murder of a German missionary in Shantung served as a convenient pretext for Germany to seize Kiaochow harbour and its surroundings. The example was followed by other powers. Russia seized Port Arthur and Talienwan, the British Wei-hai-wei and the French Kwangchow. These coveters of their neighbours' vineyards thus too plainly showed their hand.

The Boxer Movement.

The Chinese attitude to the missionaries has always been one of ill-suppressed hostility. There could be no love to men who disparaged the ethical teachings of Confucius and the religious teachings of Bodhisatvas—teachings so long venerated and cherished by the Chinese. The Chinese remembered that the missionaries preaching the gospel of love had been forced on them at the sword's point. The more far-seeing of their statesmen recognised the insidious encroachment of an *imperium in imperio*, "of a Secret Society hostile to the Commonwealth and of damage and detriment to the State." The addition to Christian converts was not making for peace. The missionaries showed themselves only too disposed to interfere whenever there was litigation or other disputes between the heathen and the convert. The Chinaman, accustomed to different views of woman's positions and responsibilities, could not but think evil of sisterhoods planted alongside of male establishments and of unmarried persons of both sexes working together both in public and in private and of girls going far into the interior without proper escort. He saw the missionaries avenged and trade pushed on and political advantages wrested on behalf of the different nations to which the suffering missionaries belong, and the Chinaman is not able to judge of the political and commercial and evangelical efforts apart from one another. The last move of Germany is specially notable in this connection. It was the occupation of Kiaochow by that power that made the other powers follow suit. The game of grab was barefacedly begun. No wonder that immediately after this aggression the patriotic league of *I Ho Chuan* began their work of active propaganda. The ostensible objects of the society were the performance of Sandow-like exercises and the preservation of peace in the neighbourhood of its headquarters. This society received the countenance of the Empress-Dowager (Tsi Thsi), and the members escaped the penalty of belonging to secret societies in China. Under such patronage the society spread till from the metropolitan province to Szechuan and Hupei the Boxer Society branches were found everywhere and they became a power. The movement was supported by men of exalted position and many Manchu officials seemed to have joined the Boxer society. It served as a protest against the reform agitation growing in

strength since the Japanese war. The young Emperor whose sympathies were with the reformers was deposed in September 1898 by the Dowager-Empress. The chief members of the reactionary party besides the Dowager-Empress were Prince Ching, Prince Tuan (the Heir-Apparent's father), Kangyi, Chaoshu Chiao and Li-ping-Hung.

1900. The Boxer movement was in essence anti-foreign and anti-missionary. Massacres of Christian converts and burning of Christian villages came to a head in the murder of two English missionaries, Robinson and Norman (2nd June 1900) forty miles away from Peking. The legations were attacked by the Chinese soldiers. The slaying of the Japanese ambassador (11th June), and of the German Baron Von Ketteler (20th June) meant that the Chinese were in for a serious trial of strength with the foreign devils. On the 20th they opened fire on the legations.

The railway communication between Tietsin and Peking had been cut off on the 14th. Admiral Sir E. Seymour proceeded with a mixed force of Europeans and Japanese from Tietsin to restore communication. He was stoutly resisted and he made good his retreat only after a heavy loss. Some time was lost in waiting for reinforcements. International jealousies on the part of Germany and Russia with regard to Japanese co-operation also contributed to the delay. But in two months, on the 14th of August, the siege of Peking was raised, the British contingent led by General Gaselee being the first to enter the place.

The defence of the legations had been conducted with the utmost valour and heroism on the part of the besieged. The Chinese in their anxiety to burn out the British legation did not scruple to burn the adjoining Hanlin Buildings, storehouse of literary treasures and State archives. The Empress and Tung-fu-hsiang, the Chinese Commander, were the brain and the arm of the siege. The destruction of property of the foreigners was appalling. The whole business quarter was in ashes. The retribution that followed after the siege was equally terrible. Looting was universal and went on for some days. It took months to restore order and confidence among the inhabitants.

The Empress did not care to face the avengers and removed with her court to Si-gan-fu in Shensi 600 miles away from Peking. The ultra-reactionary spirit dominated the court but Prince Ching and Li Hung Chung who had shown themselves not unfriendly to the foreigner were empowered to carry on negotiations with a view to settle terms of peace.

There were mutual jealousies and conflicting claims hard to reconcile among the victors. The Russian was unwilling to relinquish his hold on Manchuria, the railway line from Shan-hai-kwan to Pekin, the river frontage at Tietsin. The German demanded adequate compensation for the *lesé magesté* against the Kaiser. The English and the Japanese and the Americans were somewhat friendlier towards the Chinese. After protracted negotiations the following terms were submitted on by the allies on the 20th and the 21st December and agreed to in substance by

1901. the Chinese on the 14th January 1901:

(1) Honourable reparation for the murder of Von Ketteler and Mr. Sugiyama, (2) equitable indemnity guaranteed by financial measures approved by the Powers to states, societies and individuals who had suffered at the hands of the Chinese, (3) stoppage of importation or manufacture of arms or *materiel* into China, (4) maintenance of permanent legation guards, fortification of the diplomatic quarter and the securing of the sea communication by foreign military occupation of strategic points of the capital and the coast, (5) fixing of responsibility on governors and provincial officials for anti-foreign outbreaks and (6) the reform of Tsungli-Yamen and the modification of the ceremonial for the reception of foreign ministers.

A formal embodiment of the terms in the form of treaties among the powers concerned was delayed by a Russian attempt to secure certain advantages exclusively to herself in the way of strengthening her hold on certain parts of China where she marched with her, and also by the German Emperor insisting on Prince Chun, ambassador from the Son of Heaven, performing *kowtow* to him. Both the Tsar and the Kaiser saw the wisdom of gracefully receding from a position they could not maintain and the peace protocol was signed at Peking on the 7th September.

On the 7th October the Chinese Court returned to Peking and a month later on the 7th November died Li-Hung-Chung, who had enjoyed the largest measure of the Empress Dowager's confidence.

The trouble in Manchuria caused by the Russian and culminating in Russo-Japanese war, the awakening of China caused by a frank acceptance of Western culture, the re-organisation of national resources, reform of Government ending in a Republican form of Government are matters that will take us to the present-day China.

We referred to the intrigue of Russia to

come to a separate understanding with China with a view to secure advantages in Chinese territories bordering on Siberia. Finding however the great Powers would not stand any trifling on the matter Russia discreetly withdrew from her position. But she began again. In April 1903, she would not proceed with the evacuation of Manchuria that was due without further concessions than had been agreed for between herself and China by the treaty of 8th April 1902. In Korea again Russian activities threatened the hard wrested predominance of Japanese interests. For Japan to look on and sit still meant annihilation. She represented at St. Petersburg that Russian words and Russian deeds did not square together and offered terms that would confine Russia to Manchuria leaving Japan free to develop Korea. Russia thought she might brush aside Japan's dictation. She would not recede and she would retain all advantages on the Manchurian side and also on the Yalu side of Korea. The Island power feeling sure that Russia meant keeping a tenacious hold of Korea wanted to fight the big giant. The Russo-Japanese war was declared on February 5, 1904.

1904.

Though it seemed the height of temerity for Japan to engage in war with such a power, she had carefully calculated her resources and the resources of her enemy on the scene of the war and felt no diffidence about the result. The heroic achievements of Japan in the campaign need not detain us. It is the final result that we are interested in. The success of Japan showed in an unmistakable manner that the Eastern nations need not be to the end of time Issachar-like bearing burdens if only they should assimilate the new knowledge of the West. Japan got recognised her right to preponderating influence in Korea and received from Russia the Liao-Tung peninsula, including Port Arthur and Dalny. Russia also agreed to evacuate Manchuria according to the terms of the 1902 treaty.

The lesson of the earlier war with Japan had not been enough for the slow witted Chinaman. The success of Japan with Russia coming after the suppression of the Boxer movement awoke China to the need for assimilating Western knowledge and adopting Western methods of national organisation.

The attitude of blind suspicion towards the missionary was given up and great eagerness shown to assimilate the knowledge he made available for the Chinaman. The boycott of American goods showed that the Chinaman was not going to be the meek, long-suffering creature he had been hitherto and expressed his resentment against the Chinese exclusion from the States in the only way the dollar-loving America could understand. Educational reform, reform of the army and the navy and administrative reform were all taken up. Prince Chun who declined the *kowtow* to the Kaiser in 1901, Yuan Shih-Kai, the viceroy of Chih-li, Chang Chih-tung, the viceroy of Hu-Kwang and Prince Ching, President of the Grand Council—all helped on the reforms in different directions.

Education Reform.

In 1902, after the return of the Court to Peking, regulations remodelling the methods of public instruction were passed. The Peking University was to impart instruction in Western learning. There were to be besides a technical college a special department for the training of officials and teachers. In 1906 the old system of examinations was abolished. The funds of thousands of temples were utilised for educational purposes. By May 1906, 15 universities had started work. Many young Chinese went abroad for instruction and girls' schools were started.

Other Changes.

Among notable changes indicating the new spirit must be mentioned the control of the maritime customs which the Chinese took into their hands in 1906 and the anti-opium crusade. The first step showed the impatience of the Chinaman with foreign domination, and the second was a serious attempt at moral betterment and increased social efficiency.

The death of the Empress-Dowager on the 15th November 1908 and of the Emperor a day before carried from the scene of history two personages associated with the old world China, the China of foreign exploitation, the China unable to adjust itself to new conditions.

The son of Prince Chun, and nephew of the late Emperor Kwang-Su, succeeded with the official name of Hsuan-Tung. Born on the 8th February 1906, the Emperor must have been on the 2nd December 1908 when he was crowned Emperor a child barely 3 years old. He had just completed his sixth year (February 12, 1912) when he had to abdicate the throne. On the 1st of January 1912 the Chinese Republic was born with Dr. Sun Yat-Sen as its first President.

So early as 1905 along with other reforms the work of administrative reform was taken up. An Imperial Commission was appointed to study the administrative systems of foreign countries with a view to establish a representative govern-

ment in China. Further commissions were appointed to make special studies of the constitutions of Great Britain, Germany and Japan. As a result of all these labours a parliamentary constitution was to come off a few years hence, the reforms of central administrative offices were to be taken up first. An Imperial Assembly was to be started to develop later on into a Parliament of two chambers familiar to students of Western politics.

Reform of Government.

Elected assemblies in the provinces were instituted in 1909 (14th October.) The Senate or National Assembly met on the 3rd of October next year. The Parliament was to be summoned three years earlier than originally intended.

Meanwhile the reigning dynasty had come to be regarded as inimical to the progress of the country. It was supposed to be in league with foreigners to partition the country. The financial measures of two big loans for currency and railway made it still more unpopular. Floods and famine added to the general distress and unrest. Revolutionary doctrines were industriously spread. Yuan Shi-Ki, who was recalled to command the Imperial forces by Prince Chun who had exiled him, did what he could to stem the revolutionary tide. He wanted to secure at least a constitutional form of monarchy. The revolutionary leaders won. The abdication of the Regent and the Emperor followed. Dr. Sun Yat-Sen was the leader of the Anti-Dynastic propaganda. From Japan he had carried on his campaign and became the leader of the Young China party. When the revolution began in 1911 he was in England but he hastened to the country. The Nanking Council composed of delegates from 14 provinces elected him President of the Chinese Republic.

THE INFLUENCE OF WAR ON ART

BY MR. PERCY BROWN, A.R.C.A., I.E.S.

PRINCIPAL, GOVERNMENT SCHOOL OF ART, CALCUTTA.

IN order to dispose of any misconception that it is possible may have arisen in connexion with the subject of my remarks, it seems necessary that I should first clear the air by plainly defining the title of my lecture.* In the first place by "War", I do not mean the present great conflict, but war in general; in the second place, by "Art", I intend largely to confine myself to the so-called Fine Arts of Painting and Sculpture. This explanation seems required because the war which is now raging over almost all the world is so much in the foreground of life's picture that it may be thought I intend to deal solely with the influence of the present crisis on the daily art of our time. This aspect will naturally form a portion of my remarks, but it is in the broad manner I have indicated that I propose to approach my subject this evening.

The direct effects of war on art are obvious. So much so that they are apt to perplex the judgment and bias the opinion with regard to the equally important, but less focussed, indirect effects. At no time have the direct effects of war been brought so prominently into our vision than at present, especially with regard to architecture. From the earliest times these immediate influences have been recorded, in the destruction of cities containing unique collections of art, and buildings which have displayed the grandest architectural qualities. And the present war has most graphically supplied another expressive illustration of the devastating effects of war on art. Never has destruction been so complete, and there appears to be every reason to suppose that it has been carefully calculated destruction. Science has usurped the place of Art in many ways, but it remained to science in war to do the greatest damage to art, that is the depriving of future generations of the art which existed before science was known. It was an art which sprang from the religion the devotion and the sense of service in the world; that sense of service which not only impelled men to work for religious ends, but aroused that pride of citizenship which raised the great municipal buildings of the middle ages and made men so proud of their crafts and trades that they built such magnificent buildings as the

* A lecture delivered at Calcutta.

Cloth Hall at Ypres, and hundreds of other places where the Guilds had their centres. In the words of an artist who has seen these and written to me with the sense in his mind of the havoc done recently: "These places the Germans seem to have taken a special delight in destroying. It is as though they wished to remove all evidences of a previous civilization and on the ground thus cleared to erect their own dull, stupid, uninteresting buildings in the style their scientific minds seem to delight in."

It is however the less obvious, but more far-reaching, results of the "indirect influences" to which I propose to call your attention, and, as an introduction to this, a brief investigation of the effects of great wars on art, as chronicled in history, may be undertaken.

One of the earliest civilizations, that of Egypt, was characterised by a profoundly artistic nature, and at the same time its history is a record of constant warfare. The purpose of Egyptian art was always to give a faithful representation of fact. This was either actual fact or ideal fact. In interpreting the former much of the mural sculpture portrays the victories of great kings over innumerable enemies, while a favourite subject is an illustration of bands of prisoners accompanied by huge captures of loot. During the period of the 18th dynasty, about 1500 B.C., Egypt, under Tothmes III, became essentially a military state, and at this time many of the noblest of her monuments were executed. The artistic importance of the school of sculpture which flourished at this time has only recently been recognised, but it plainly indicates the main source of inspiration of a subsequent and greater art, that of the Greeks. At this time the virility and intense energy of the Egyptians in all their glory found an outlet in war, and simultaneously in raising great buildings lavishly decorated with bas-reliefs of their victories.

The Assyrians were warriors and hunters, and scenes commemorating their prowess in both these spheres predominate in the remains of Babylon and Nineveh. One of the earliest records found in the Mesapotamean valley illustrates a most realistic picture of war. It is the famous "Stele of the Vultures", now in the Louvre, but originally a monument of victory. The details of this battle seem to have made a vivid impression on the artist's mind, and all the horrors of war are faithfully depicted. In one scene the king stands in his chariot with a curved weapon in his right hand, while his kilted and helmeted followers, lance in hand march behind. In another a flock of vultures is feeding on the bodies of the fallen enemy; in a third a tumulus is being heaped up over the slain. Elsewhere we see the victorious prince beating down a vanquished enemy, and superintending the execution of other prisoners who are being sacrificed to the gods. Scenes of this nature occur frequently in the early sculptures of Babylonia and indicate that in those days war and art progressed hand in hand. The Assyrians were a hardy, vigorous people, fighting for dominion, and this is repeatedly shewn in their pictorial bas-reliefs.

Ancient India provides us, in its greatest epics, with excellent illustrations of war and art, as the main theme of the Mahabharata is based on the destructive conflict waged between the Kurus and Panchalas, and ending in the overthrow of the Kuru dynasty. The incidents of this classic, and especially its descriptions of heroic fighting, have formed popular subjects with Indian artists for thousands of years. From the Ramayana, too, Indian painters and sculptors have taken their pictures of war, notably the splendidly dramatic attack by the monkey army on the stronghold of Ravana at Lanka in Ceylon; while sanguinary battles and the sack of cities were frequently represented by the Indian miniaturists of Moghul times.

But when we turn to the history of ancient Greece we find the most interesting illustration of the influence of war on a country's Art. It is true that certain schools of modern thought have endeavoured to depreciate the artistic productions of the classic age, but, in spite of this, Greek art is still generally regarded as the highest form of æsthetic culture the world has ever seen. In it idealism and ethical purpose predominate, and in all good examples we find the fundamental beauty of tone and line and mass and colour which is always present in every true work of art. Greek statuary demonstrates that the Greek people managed to invent and live by a practical ideal. That ideal was a good Athenian citizen, only more so. It was a citizen rather richer, rather braver, rather bigger, rather nobler, rather stronger, rather more eloquent, intelligent, and comely than any citizen they had ever happened to meet. Further this ideal citizen, in fact every Greek, was necessarily a soldier. The result was that the martial spirit permeates the whole atmosphere of the country. It is the foundation of their literature, their art, and all their public institutions.

Some explanation of this is to be found in the early history of the nation. From the first, Greece found herself fighting for her very existence against the great power of Persia in the 6th Century B.C. In this momentous conflict it must be realized that not only the ascendency of Greece, but in its broad aspect the whole future of European civilization was at stake. As time went on, the Greeks began to perceive more and more clearly that the great conflict in which they were involved was one not merely for national but for spiritual issues. The story of the great battles which brought about the national unity of Greece is reflected in the art which followed these epoch-making events. These bitter years of devastation, of struggle that must often have seemed futile and hopeless, leading up to the final repulse of the Persians at Salamis and Platæa, brought the Greeks to a proud consciousness of a glorious national destiny, and to an unfaltering faith in, and pursuit of, those enlightened ideals for which they had fought. Their ultimate victory was a splendid moment in the history of a richly dowered race; the great events of the Persian wars were vivid and recent in their remembrance, and it was the persistence of such memories which formed the foundation of much of the art of Greece. But it did not take the form of a portrayal of its scenes of conflict and victory. Instead it became idealised into a representation of a spiritual struggle of the Hellenic race for those ideals of light and liberty and reason and order which had been at stake. In their art the Persian wars were forgotten, but the spiritual conflict which they typified remained as a recurring theme whose significance was for all time. Indeed it may be said that this spiritualised conception of conflict, in which the upward-reaching Hellenic spirit is represented as contending with the powers of darkness and licence and social anarchy, is the central motive of Greek sculpture; and it was the vivid national sense of this conflict that enabled the Greeks to achieve that noble pinnacle of beauty which their art attained. The gods and heroes whom they fashioned in bronze and marble stood for the ideals and aspects of ordered reason. Their satyrs and other wild beings were types of the licence and disorder of nature. And in their friezes and pediments, decorated with battles of the Greeks with Amazons, Lapiths with Centaurs and gods with giants, we read the same story of perpetual conflict with anti-social, unruly and destructive forces.

From Greece the national historical sequence is Rome. Rome occupies a singular position in the annals of Literature and Art. She is, as it were, the link between the ancient and the modern world. In the pride of her prime the rays of intellectual life converged on her as on a focus; in her downfall, she was the centre, from which they were scattered over the whole of the ancient world.

It is impossible to dissociate any of the Roman genius from her military successes. Her intellectual productions, including her art, such as they are presented to us, demonstrate undeniably the influence of her strenuous fighting history. Certain direct effects which are always produced in a greater or lesser degree on the art of a victorious people, by the extent of territory consequent on a long series of triumphs, are very evident in the records of Rome. Her wide dominions were necessarily favourable to intellectual advancement, for from these she was able to accumulate artistic treasures, to enlist the talent of other countries, and to supply incentives, materials, and models for the development of art. We read that painters were in requisition to furnish the necessary ornaments of the Roman triumph. The Athenians sent Metrodorus to Paulus Emilius for that purpose. Pictorial models of numerous cities were displayed in the procession which celebrated the victory of Scipio over Antiochus. It is recorded that Messala first exhibited a picture of his victory over the Carthaginians; Scipio and others followed his example. Mancinus was said to have owed his consulship to the enthusiasm excited among the people by a painting which represented his successful assault on Carthage. The designs on Roman coins were suggested by conquest, such as the figures emblematic of subjugated provinces, and the delineations of triumphal arches and public edifices. Rome in art became truly "the epitome of the world;" her galleries and shrines were adorned with the choicest spoils of Corinth, of Sicyon, and of Athens; in fact it has been said at the time that her population of statues rivalled in number her population of citizens. It was the singular privilege of Rome to command at once by force of arms the stores of Asia and the skill of Greece.

It may be pointed out however that these brilliant results of conquest are balanced by some evils. Rome appertained more to a Museum than a School of Art, and that this fact and her vast extent of territory comprehending a variety of different types tended to produce an æsthetic-

cism of a somewhat composite nature. While the wars of Greece established harmony between the character of different Greek tribes with the result of harmony in the orders of their architecture, the Roman conquests led to extensive but heterogeneous dominions and a style made up of diverse and sometimes discordant elements. Ruskin's evidence is that while the Romans were in every sense adepts at war and great fighters, they were wholly deficient in the true æsthetic instinct; and in their hands the classic arts were extinguished. To summarise, the devotion of Rome to war during the first five centuries of her history diverted her from the refined occupation of art. At the end of that period, war, in the form of conquest, began to exercise a contrary influence, and a people, who had previously been characterized by a contempt for everything æsthetic, became willing at once to admire, to imitate, and to preserve. This however was largely the extent to which their aspirations led them, for the art of Rome is not usually classed with the great schools of history.

Time does not permit of an investigation of the Crusades in their influence on art, regarding which there is much conflicting evidence. There is however little doubt that the art of western Europe, including England, received an impetus from these religious wars, for they brought people into contact with records of an older and more complete civilization than that with which they were previously acquainted. In Byzantium, where a number of them spent some time, they would see examples of art richer, especially in colour-richness, than anything they had ever dreamt of. Commerce might ultimately have brought about the same results but it would have been by slower methods. Then there is that period of warfare in the 16th century, in which, throughout the whole of English life, in every phase and every grade of it there is that exaltation, that spiritual exultancy, which finds its supreme expression in Elizabethan literature, in the great dramatists of that time, in Marlowe and Shakespeare and Ford, in Webster, in Beaumont and Fletcher, in that outburst of thought and of art which has no parallel in world-history. The 16th century marks a chain of art which stretched across the world from England to China; the Italian school of Painting, Moghul Painting in India, Persian Painting under Shah Abbas, the wonderful Ming Dynasty in China, and the Elizabethan period in England.

From this preliminary survey, we may turn back to the Greek period again, to a momentous historic episode, closely related to our subject, which it is desired to emphasize because of its intimate bearing on the country of India and its art. I refer to Alexander the Great's expedition into Asia in the 4th Century B.C. It is now not unusual to hear this marvellous achievement somewhat disparagingly alluded to as a raid, and its direct effects on India as being of no great significance. Also that the Hellenisation of the East would have progressed on practically similar lines had Alexander's expedition never taken place. This view however has not been generally accepted, and in any case the march of Alexander may be regarded as immediately leading to the consummation of Occidental influence in the Orient during these early years of history.

The story of Alexander's campaign in the East is outside the limits of my subject, but in its bearing on Indian Art a few essential facts may be brought forward. In the first instance it seems clear that the early artistic efforts of the Greeks were inspired by their contact with the comparatively advanced civilization of the Persians. Travelled Greeks found themselves confronted with the achievements and memorials of a highly developed Oriental culture, with traditions which must have appealed to their receptive nature. But Greek Art and Literature, though proceeding from Eastern origins, soon manifested a spirit of self-reliance and took up an independent and indigenous character. By the time of the 5th century B.C. the reflex action was in force, and Greek culture was making itself felt in the Near East. In art it was its strength and beauty, its worship of the "Wholeness of Life," which made it so supreme and led to its being carried into all parts of the then known world. But the great driving power which caused it to make an indelible mark on many of the institutions of the East was Alexander's invasion of Persia into India between the years 334 and 326 B.C.

This expedition was a far more complete undertaking than expeditions are realized in later days. Apart from the military contingent which comprised the nucleus of the force, there was a large attendant, somewhat cosmopolitan community of a civil nature, who carried their trades and occupations with them. This, as we know, was a feature of most expeditions which had invasion as their object in ancient days, but it is understood that in this case the entire operation was organized in a remarkably elaborate and thorough manner. That Alexander's pre-conceived plan

was something far superior to a raid may be gathered from an incident quoted from Professor Cramb. On the night before Alexander of Macedon started for the East on that career of conquest in which, like Achilles, his great exemplar, he was to find his glory and an early death, he had a farewell interview with the man who had been his tutor, now the master of a rising school of thought in the shades of the Lyceum. And towards the close of the interview Aristotle said to the Macedonian :—

"You are about to start upon an enterprise which will bring you into many lands and amongst many nations, some already celebrated in arts and arms, some savage and unknown. But this last counsel I give you. Whithersoever your victories lead you, never forget that you are a Greek and everywhere draw hard and fast the line that separates the Greek from the Barbarian."

"No," answered the youthful conqueror—he was barely two and twenty. "I will pursue another policy, I will make all men Hellenes. That shall be the purpose of my victories."

The wisdom of a soldier for once went deeper than the wisdom of the greatest architect of thought that time has known. And undoubtedly the famous Macedonian's plan, either for better or for worse, was most rigorously put into effect, and carried out to the letter. Colonies of Greeks were planted in various localities with one of the results that the influence of Hellenic art has been traced even as far east as Japan. In Northern India the imprint of the Greek is most strikingly manifested in those mounds of shattered sculptures in the neighbourhood of Peshawar, which mark the site of the ancient country of Gandhara. A comprehensive collection of these carvings may be seen in the archeological section of the Indian Museum, a careful study of which is strongly advised. In it we may observe, most plainly portrayed, the influence of a warlike invasion on art. But that is, except in connexion with my subject, a comparatively unimportant feature of these remains. The chief point they illustrate is the overlapping of the civilisations of the East and West which took place some two thousand years ago. And the principal concrete evidence of this historic episode is revealed in these records of contemporary art. Here we may see the Greek Corinthian capital combined with the Indian figure of Buddha, soldiers with classic arms and armour but Indian draperies. Greek features but the figures clothed with Indian costumes, and many other composite conceptions depicting an intermingling of Eastern and Western symbols and ideas. But the influence of the Greeks was not only confined to the north, although in that portion of the country it is most plainly discernible. South, as far as Madras, it is traceable in the bas-reliefs of Amaravati but in a much less pronounced form and in various intermediate centres, such as Muttra in the United Provinces, the dynamic touch of the classic hand has left its distinctive mark. How much of this may be traced to the soft flowing current of peaceful intercourse, or to the stormy stream of Alexander's warlike enterprise, it is difficult to decide, but that the latter had no small share in spreading classic influence in Indian Art seems more than probable. We may now, having briefly reviewed some of the various historic examples of our subject, endeavour to formulate a general deduction.

In the first place it is ordinarily understood that a time of peace is the great stimulant to the production of art; that when countries are engaged in their peaceful occupations of trade or manufacture, then architecture, sculpture and painting flourish: that tranquillity and harmony of life encourage artistic activity, and, under these quiet and orderly conditions the artist prepares his masterpieces undisturbed by strife and violence—in other words that peace is the parent of art. On the other hand several authorities have demonstrated that the entire opposite is the case, and that far from being the fruits of peace, the great arts of the world have been founded on war. In the words of Ruskin "there is no great art possible to a nation but that which is based on battle," in the times of peace the arts decline and among wholly tranquil nations wither utterly away.

Now I am inclined to think that the records of history mainly point out that both peace and war are, other things being equal, required to produce a great art. These other things are: art instinct, without which of course art is impossible, and most important of all the character of the war in which the country is engaged. It is quite possible that one of the reasons why Roman art never attained greatness was that the Roman wars were mainly wars of conquest. Inversely, some of the grand quality of the Grecian art may be due to the fact that the wars of Greece were largely struggles for national ideals. A great fight for right principles inspired the people with a sense of exultation and a feeling of moral strength that found expression in a noble art

The balance of historical evidence seems to indicate that the period of peace immediately succeeding a war waged solely for the sake of fundamental ideas, is the most favourable time for the development of the arts.

It remains now for us to apply this deduction to the present state of affairs and to see if possible what may be the course of art in the near future. To carry out this undoubtedly difficult proposition it will be necessary to realise the condition of art previous to this great crisis and to note the trend of art thought during the last few years.

The historian of the future will, I think, determine that the 19th century was not a great one for art. But he will probably refer to the fact that the first years of the 20th century marked a period of æsthetic unrest. This unrest is known to most of us by numerous examples of painting and sculpture of an unusual character which have been recently exhibited and reproduced in most of the countries of Europe and also elsewhere. It may be asked what were the events which led up to what has almost culminated in a state of artistic anarchy? The answer is one which extends far outside the realm of art and is to be found in the condition of mankind itself. It may be likened to an earth tremor, more convulsive in some places than in others, but a general seismic wave which disturbed the balance of mind in several parts of world. But unlike an earthquake it gave some warning of its action. In art it showed itself in overmuch frivolity and license. Particularly was this noticeable in much of the modern German art, which revealed a coarseness and wantonness which is significant in the light of very recent events. Here it may be remarked that of modern German artists only three, Böcklin, Lenbach and Menzel, have risen to any attempt at greatness. The pompous and inflated compositions of Carstens and Mengs, of Schnorr, Cornelius and Kaulbach, have passed into an oblivion from which it is unlikely that they will ever emerge. Their work was a mere exercise in the grand style from which life, character and humanity, whereby art retains its hold on men, have alike vanished. To realise the art of Germany's rising generation we have only to refer to modern students' journals, which largely illustrate freaks of design, or frantic models posturing in front of toy cypresses and plaster temples.

It is not difficult to believe that the enervating influences of peace were indirectly responsible for the state of art generally during the last few years. For from peace nations passed to prosperity, from prosperity to luxury; and from luxury to an insatiable desire for something new and exciting in life. (Here the significant fact may be observed that the men fighting in the trenches, in spite of hardships, with a few exceptions, remain remarkably healthy and vigorous because their life is the reverse of luxurious and appertains to the strenuous primitive existence of the pre-historic cave-dwellers). In the art-world this restlessness and craving for novelty took a revolutionary form, or, as some would have it, created æsthetic hysteria.

And so came into being the Passeists, and Futurists, the Divisionists and Pointillists, the Intimists (who belong to the same group) and the Fauvists (or savages), the Orfeists and Cubists, the Expressionists, Vorticists and Dynamists. The manifesto of the Futurists issued in February 1909 will give some idea of their character and programme:

'The essential elements of our art shall be courage, daring, and rebellion.

'There is no beauty except in strife.

'We shall glorify war, patriotism, the destructive arm of the Anarchist, the contempt for effeminacy.

'We shall paint the great crowds in the excitement of labor, pleasure, or rebellion; of the multicolored and polyphoric surf of revolutions in modern capital cities; of the nocturnal vibration of arsenals and workshops beneath their violent electric moons; of the greedy stations swallowing smoking snakes; of factories suspended from the clouds by their strings of smoke; of bridges leaping like gymnasts over the diabolical cutlery of sun-bathed rivers; of adventurous liners scenting the horizon; of broad-chested locomotives prancing on the rails, like huge steel horses bridled with long tubes; and of the gliding flight of aeroplanes, the sound of whose screw is like the flapping of flags, and the applause of an enthusiastic crowd.

'Erect on the topmast pinnacle of the world, once again we fling our defiance to the stars'

This manifesto, read in cold blood, sounds like pure revolutionary rant; but a deeper study of this programme reveals considerable bed-rock of reason. In other words it means a violent reaction against the shackles of tradition and the worship of precedent. Freedom is their battle-cry, and their war is against weakness and senti-

mentality, invalidism, comfort, softness, luxury and effeminate excess.

With this the thinking man will no doubt sympathise, but when it comes to an understanding of their manifesto, materialised into art, the ordinary individual stands aghast. It is in the interpretation of their object that they fail to convince, and the question then arises as to whether it is possible to translate intelligibly their revolutionary ideas into concrete art. An abstract of Marinetti's recitation of one of his poems on battles may convey some sense of what this Futurist calls "wireless imagination". "The event described took place outside Adrianople in 1912 and depicts a train of Turkish wounded, stopped and captured on its way by Bulgarian troops and guns. The noise, the confusion, the surprise of death, the terror and courage, the grandeur and appalling littleness, the doom and chance, the shouting, curses, blood, stink, and agony all were combined into one great emotion by that amazing succession of words, performed or enacted by the poet with such passion of abandonment that no one could escape the spell of listening. Mingled anguish and hope as the train started: rude jolts and shocks and yet hope; the passing landscape, thought of reaching Stamboul. Suddenly, the air full of shriek and boom of bullets and shells; hammering of machine-guns, shouting of captains, crash of approaching cannon. And all the time one felt the deadly microbes crawling in the suppurating wounds, devouring the flesh, undermining the thin walls of the vitals. One felt the infinitely little, the pestilence that walks in darkness, at work in the midst of gigantic turmoil making history. That is the very essence of war. That is war's central emotion."

In effect, something of that kind was to be the fundamental idea of this higher æstheticism, but before people had quite decided how to receive it, the shadow of the great war blotted out all these apparent side issues, and the world was brought sharply back to first principles. And so, for the time being, art is at a standstill, except for the comparatively narrow avenue of journalistic illustrations. Further, it is likely to remain stationary until the world settles down to peace again. But in the meantime, sub-consciously, the art of the future is being forged and annealed by the powerful flame of war. War has destroyed much, as we have seen, but it has created far more than it ever destroyed. It has destroyed the shallowness of national life which is reflected in a superficial art, and in its place it is building up a new sense of national thought and tendency. And the awakening of this deeper nature should lead to a deeper contemplation of artistic ideals. A people's art has, and must have, some relation to and some movement with the strong stream of national life. The artist's use of his eyes and ears and mind reflects, and must reflect, the habit and race of his time.

So through this great conflict we may reasonably hope for great artistic issues. Belgium, ever an artistic country, will, when peace is eventually secured, no doubt rise to the occasion and display her artistic spirit, just as she has so brilliantly shewn her fighting spirit. Out of the very catastrophe with which Belgium has been overwhelmed, from the experiences of war, defeat, and spoliation, ultimate victory will surely rise, Phoenix-like, an artistic revival. The impious and wanton destruction, to which she has been subjected, may be the means of tuning and concentrating her artistic talent, and, in the restoration of her national monuments, she will have a unique opportunity for the exercise of her genius. France has, in a lesser degree, undergone a similar harrowing experience, and, with her great and undoubted reputation for art great things may be expected. And the anticipated example of these two countries will no doubt stimulate others which are now being subjected to the bitter discipline of war. As a result of this discipline it seems more than probable that, in that vague "Afterwards," a great revival of art will take place, on a sounder and more exalted plane than has ever been possible since the 16th century.

Essays on Indian Art, Industry and Education

BY E. B. HAVELL

CONTENTS:—The Taj and Its Designers, The Revival of Indian Hadicraft, Art and Education in India, Art and University Reform in India, Indian Administration and 'Swadeshi' and the Uses of Art. Price Re. 1-4. To subscribers of the *Indian Review*, Re. 1.

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GERMAN vs. ENGLISH EDUCATION*

BY SIR PHILIP MAGNUS, M.P.

Of late years, we have heard a great deal of loud talk as to the excellence of German education. There was a time, some twenty or thirty years ago, when I admit our school organization was very defective. It was at a time when the late Matthew Arnold was continually telling us to organize our secondary education. But that has now been partly accomplished, and it is well to remember that there can be too much, as well as too little, organization. What is more important than organization is the character and spirit of the teaching given in our schools; and, viewed as a whole, I believe our own system and our own methods are distinctly better than the German. In Parliament and elsewhere, I have frequently heard men occupying high positions endeavour to enforce their arguments in favour of some new measure or proposal by saying, "It is done in Germany." Well, I must own that argument has had little weight with me, and it has the less appealed to me, because I have known that if these distinguished authorities, instead of selecting for our imitation some particular feature of German practice, had explained to us more fully German methods, the picture would have proved less attractive. But this by the way. No doubt you have been impressed, as we all have been, by the intelligence, the foresight, and attention in detail shown by the Germans in their preparation for the War in which we are now engaged. But the lessons to be learnt from this War—lessons not to be despised nor to be regarded as the German Emperor is said to have spoken of Sir John French's "little army"—do not lead to the conclusion that their men and women are more competent or more highly cultured than our own, nor even that the instruction provided in their schools and colleges is more educational in the true meaning of that word than that provided in our own institutions. Judging from the Report of the Principal read to us this evening, I do not hesitate to say that there is no school similar to this in Germany doing equally good work. The much praised German efficiency is due to many causes, but it cannot be ascribed to the intellectual, and certainly not to the moral, pre-eminence of their ordinary citizens. It is due largely to the concentration of their educational efforts on a specialized form of training—a training the advantages of which have been recognized at all times and in all countries except our own—I mean military training; and, strange to say, it is this training, which those who have been loudest in their praise of German education have consistently deprecated.

Everyone who has studied German social conditions has known that German life in all its varied aspects has been, and is now, dominated by one idea—the preparation for War. I am not one of those who speak disparagingly of the beneficial influence on character of military exercises. I recognize their value in developing bodily activity, in quickening the perceptions, in rendering the intellect more alert, and in creating useful habits. But that the soul of a nation should be wholly pre-occupied with warlike preparations, that all social, political, and economic efforts should be determined by military considerations, that the universities, the techincal and other schools should be saturated with thoughts of war and conquest, and that the conceptions of the people should be so warped that they fail to distinguish between Might and Right, and learn to exalt necessity above moral law is, as the result of education, so opposed to our own ideals, and is so antagonistic to all civilizing influences, as to compel every effort to prevent its spread, and to sanctify the sacrifices which we and other nations are making to resist it.

The German Government, realizing that some justification was needed for this deification and worship of brute force, would seem to have invited, or required, the Professors of their State-supported Universities, themselves servants of the State, to proclaim the great superiority of their own culture over that of any other country, and the consequent urgent necessity that Germany should acquire, by force of arms, supreme political power, in order to fulfil what she claims as her heaven-imposed task and civilizing mission, that of spreading her own culture and her own civilization throughout the world. The arrogance of this claim only equalled by its absurdity and purposeful self-deception. Prussia has dominated

* A prize giving address delivered at the Municipal Technical School, Birmingham, recently.

the rest of Germany, and some of the finest features of German idealism have been destroyed by her powerful penetrating spirit. She has not yet succeeded in dominating Britain, and in literature as in science, in discovery and invention, she remains far behind us. And, if we eliminate what Germany owes to Slavonic and Semitic genius, we may truly say that, except perhaps in music, there is no form of culture in which the Teutons, as a race, are superior to the Anglo-Saxons. It was necessary, however, to fan the native conceit of the German people, in order to gain their support for the costly scheme of conquest on which they had determined to embark. Hence their Culture cry. But we all know now and many knew long since, that their real object was to strike at England, and by first destroying, and then re-arranging, the scattered elements of the British Empire, to subdue and to govern the habitable globe. Well, they have not done that yet; but the picture of the Kaiser and the Sultan marching arm-in-arm among the nations, distributing tracts on Culture and the higher civilizing influences of Prussian discipline, would indeed be comic, were it not for the pain and sorrow which have followed from the over-bearing conceit that has brought about this devastating War. And now, let me briefly explain, how this swollen-headedness and ambition have affected the whole scheme of German education.

In their educational system, and indeed in the entire organization of their social life, compulsion is largely substituted for free volition. Slavish obedience is regarded as essential for the exercise of what is claimed as *Deutsche Tugent*, or German virtue, and it is so enforced that freedom of expression in thought or action is rigorously suppressed. From his earliest childhood, throughout his entire youth the ordinary citizen is trained in accordance with the requirements of a State policy, and is treated as a part of a great military machine. In a very interesting book, recently published, entitled "Memories of the Kaiser's Court," the author, who was English governess to the Princess Victoria Louise, now Duchess of Brunswick, says; "Education in Germany seems to be strictly standardized. At a certain age every child, be he prince or peasant will be in a cetain class,learning certain subjects. Each year he will move a grade higher, or if he does not the whole family will feel that some dreadful, irretrievable disgrace has befallen it. The mother will weep about the house, sighing and swallowing her tears. The father will wear a corrugated brow, and perceive, looming in the distance, a son who is a *Zweijähriger*, that is, one who must give two years instead of one to military service, since he has not passed the necessary examination which reduces the term by twelve months. This is one of the most terrible things that can happen to a German household."

There is not much suggestion of love of learning in the passage I have quoted. The parents' sorrow is not for their son's failure to appreciate German culture, but for the more disappointing fact that he will be forced to undergo two years' military service instead of one, and will be pointed at as a *Zweijähriger*.

In this family picture, in the description of German social life, which may be found in many works of fiction and in other publications, and in the events which have led up to this War, and also in its conduct, we see the grave defects and not the merits—although there are some—of the German as compared with our own system of education. We see the lack of sympathy and of imagination and the consequent narrowness of view, the paralysis of individualism, the exaltation of mere intellect, and the absence of any high moral sense. We see a whole people organized into a vast and nearly perfect military machine, its human elements so controlled and tempered as to act with the accuracy and precision of the cogs and wheels of some highly finished mechanical appliance. As an example of disicipline, and of the effect of enforced obedience, it is nearly perfect. But when, under changed conditions, as in a state of war, these leading strings are loosened and the accustomed fetters are removed, we find that the average man, so educated, relapses into a state of almost native barbarism, and acts under the savage impulses of his untrained and undeveloped character. Too many sad examples of the excesses to which he is liable the history of this War has disclosed. Such conduct, which has come as a painful surprise to most of us, is very largely due to the system of education, which coerces instead of training the will, and compels obedince, instead of encouraging a healthy sense of freedom and responsibility. To this system of education our own is a happy contrast, and I hope it will continue to remain so.

One lesson, however, of practical importance we may learn from the study of the great warlike instrument which has been largely fashioned in

the schools of Germany. We may learn the value of thoroughness in any work in which we may be engaged. It may be—I fear it is so—that in much that we have undertaken we have been content with something too far short of the perfection which should be our aim, and towards which, by more concentrated study, we might be able more nearly to approach. We may have become a bit slack owing to the individual liberty which we enjoy, and which we rightly prize. We may suffer from the drawbacks to our advantages. If so, let us be warned in time. In physics, we know what is meant by the dissipation of energy. In all our undertakings we should endeavour to avoid it. On the battlefield the enemy have scored successes, gained by their previous preparation for every conceivable emergency by their careful survey of the conditions of the problem they had set themselves to solve, and by the swiftness and strength of their attack at selected points. They have made mistakes. They have failed, from lack of imagination, to anticipate the action of their opponents. They may have miscalculated the effect of certain unknown, and possibly unknowable, forces. But we cannot fail to admire their thought and care in preparation and their thoroughness in actual work. Those qualities are worthy of imitation and are potent elements of success. In all our educational efforts we should avoid superficiality, applying all our energies to master each separate difficulty with which we are confronted. Such difficulties meet us in the classroom, and in the laboratory, and be sure that we gain more intellectually by the thorough mastery and complete solution of some one problem, by the determination of all relevant considerations in any single investigation, than by covering in a partial and *dilettante* manner a much larger area of work. It is an old educational axiom—to which, in many of our schools, too little attention is given—*non multa, sed multum*; it is a still older maxim, applicable to all our undertakings, "Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might."

Before sitting down, there is one educational question of wide significance, to which the attention of Parliament has recently been directed, on which I desire to say a few words. The question has special reference to the work of great technical institutions, such as this school. I refer to the importance of some preparatory and intermediate training for children between the ages when they leave the elementary school and when they should commence their distinctly technological instruction. There are many more ways than one of bridging over this critical period in a child's life. We have adopted from the French and the Belgians, whose artisans have always been distinguished for their efficiency, a system of continuation trade schools, known as "Apprenticeship Schools." We are establishing evening junior technical schools, which will serve as feeders for the higher technical institutions. But we cannot escape from the conclusion that the majority of children between the ages of thirteen and sixteen, or indeed fourteen and seventeen, who have spent the whole day in the factory or shop, or in other work, are too tired to profit fully by evening teaching. Time and money are, therefore, wasted in driving them into evening schools. What I am very anxious to prevent is the enactment of any measure compelling these children to attend such schools. Here, again, we should avoid imitating what we are told is the German practice. I appeal, therefore, most earnestly to manufacturers and employers of labour to afford facilities to their apprentices and young employees to join, if only for a few hours a week, day classes, in which they may receive practical instruction, and to make it as far as possible a condition of employment that they attend those classes. Further, I venture most respectfully to urge Local Education Authorities to arrange for the formation of day classes during those hours that may be found most convenient to employers. I am quite certain that much may be effected by co-operation and by the mutual efforts of employers and local authorities. Encouragement is far better than compulsion, and is better adapted to our ingrained British principles. There are duties which the State has a right to exact from its citizens, and in enforcing these the State may have been too lenient; but in educational matters, where compulsion can be avoided, let us leave to our young students above school-age as much individual liberty as possible.

Well, I have ventured in these few remarks to afford an example of that superficiality I have asked you to avoid. I have touched upon many subjects without fully discussing any one. I apologize. But I could not refrain from all reference to the distinctive differences between the overpraised German system of education and our own, and from pointing the moral which those differences suggest.

THE RISE AND GROWTH OF JAPAN*

BY

THE HON. MR. V. S. SRINIVASA SASTRI.

FROM the earliest times down to a very recent date the Government of Japan was an absolute monarchy. The Imperial House has passed through many vicissitudes, though its continuity has been maintained by various devices and legal fictions. According to native accounts the present Emperor is the one hundred and twenty-third occupant of the throne, the first Emperor being Jimmu whose date is given as B.C. 660. The son did not always succeed his father as Mikado, but the succession seems in early times to have been determined by the Court officers who confined their choice, however, to the royal family. A curious custom obtained of old of changing the royal residence at every accession. The earliest capital was Takaoka in the Yamato province. About A. D. 709, Nara became capital and enjoyed the honour for nearly a century, until it was replaced in A. D. 794, by Kyoto which continued to be the seat of the Emperor till 1868, when, in order to make the Great Revolution as impressive and striking as possible, the last Mikado moved to Yedo which had been the seat of the Shogun from the time of Iyeyasu. To console the citizens of the old capital, its name was changed to Saikyo which means Western Capital, while the favoured city received the name of Tokyo which means Eastern Capital. Like most royal families, the family of the Mikado claims descent from the gods; but a curious consequence has followed in its case. It was thought, until the late Mikado broke this tradition as he has broken so many other traditions, that it was unworthy of those who partook of divinity to concern themselves with the affairs of mere men, so that the Emperors generally lived in perfect seclusion and delegated their powers to others. It was in this way that militarism became triumphant in Japanese affairs, and the royal powers, but not the title, passed into the hands of powerful families which one after another gained ascendancy. Another peculiarity, not altogether unknown in Indian history, was the excessive vogue attained by the practice of abdication. It was so common that at one and the same time two or even three ex-Emperors might be living in retirement, but continuing to exercise some influence over the administration. In some cases the abdication was voluntary, but there are others in which it could not have been so. For instance, we hear of an Emperor who ascended the throne at the age of 9 and abdicated at 26, of one who ruled between 5 and 20, and strangely enough, of one who assumed the purple at 2 only to lay it aside at 4!

The earliest of the great houses that rose to supremacy is the Fujiwara which was overthrown by Kiyomori in 1156. His clan called the Taira held sway for a brief period, being replaced by the Minamoto whose founder Yoritomo received for the first time the title of Sei-i-tai-shogun in 1192. He removed his residence to the town of Kamakura and began the system of dual Government by the Emperor and by the Shogun, which has been such a marked feature of the history of Japan. The Shogunate now became hereditary, and owing to the enervating luxuries of the Shogun's court, the minorities, and the abdications, his power practically passed into the hands of a regent who belonged to the Hojo family. This regency in its turn became hereditary and subject to the same downward course as the Shogunate, so that in A. D. 1256 we find an infant regent under the guardianship of a tutor, who was the *de facto* ruler of the land. "Thus it had come about that a tutor now controlled the regent, who was supposed to control the Shogun; who was supposed to be the vassal of the Emperor; who in turn was generally a child under the control of a corrupt and venal court. Truly Government in Japan had sunk to its lowest point, and it was time for heroic remedies!" In 1281 during the Hojo regency occurred the only serious invasion of Japan. The invading force was an army of Mongolians sent by Kubla Khan in more than three hundred vessels. A timely typhoon coming to the aid of the Hojo regent, he succeeded in destroying the fleet and the army. The Hojo supremacy lasted till 1333 when the Emperor Godaigo resolved to come out of his seclusion and, with the help of a few strong friends, succeeded in assuming the real as well as the nominal sovereignty. But this restoration of the Imperial power, which promised to be popular, soon came

* This sketch which had originally been carried down to the year 1900 has since been brought up-to-date.

execution of Mitsunari, Konishi and Otani, who were Christians and would not commit *harakiri*. Kato Kiyomasa who bore the lion's share of the work of pacification was rewarded with the province of Higo which had been forfeited by his enemy Konishi. On account of his bitter antipathy to Christians, the Jesuits hated him; but he became one of Japan's popular heroes and is even worshipped under the name of Seishoko. He it was that built the castle of Kumamoto which will be heard of again after the Great Restoration. Iyeyasu, being descended from the Minamoto family, was worthy of being raised to the rank of Shogun which he received duly at the hands of the Emperor in 1603. His own family title was Tokugawa, the name of his ancestral village. The failure of his great predecessors Nobunaga and Hideyoshi to secure their power and position to their descendants taught him the need of making very elaborate precautions to secure the office and dignity of Shogun to his own line, and his efforts were so entirely successful that the Tokugawa was continued in uninterrupted and peaceful enjoyment of the Shogunate till in 1867 its last representative Yoshinobu resigned his power and position into the hands of the late Mikado. Iyeyasu removed the seat of the Executive Government from Kyoto to his own city of Yedo, thereby cutting himself off from the debasing and effeminate associations of the old capital. Strangely enough, after two years of office, when his glory was at its highest, he abdicated in favour of his son and retired to a place called Sumpu. From this place, however, he still continued to administer the more important affairs of State.

Attention must be turned now to the position of Christianity in the land. Iyeyasu for the first few years did not concern himself about the spread of the foreign religion. But he had shared in Taiko Sama's belief that it was fraught with danger to the State and devised serious measures to check it. In 1606 he issued a warning proclamation against people embracing the new faith. In spite of this the Christians continued their public displays and thus provoked him to sterner steps. Moreover, the English and the Dutch traders who were treated by him with especial consideration began to poison his mind against the general tendency of the Jesuits. An edict in 1614 was followed by the deportation of Jesuits to Nagasaki and of other Native Christians to Tsugaru, the northern extremity of the main island. A special department of State was created under the designation of the Christian Inquiry for the purpose of compelling the Native Christians to give up their faith. The death of Iyeyasu in 1616 brought only added hardships to the Christians.

The following extract will suffice as an indication of the cruelties to which they were subjected.

"We read of Christians being executed in a barbarous manner in sight of each other, of their being hurled from the tops of precipices, of their being burned alive, of their being torn asunder by oxen, of their being tied up in rice bags which were heaped up together, and of the pile thus formed being set on fire. Others were tortured before death by the insertion of sharp spikes under the nails of their hands and feet, while some poor wretches by a refinement of horrid cruelty were shut up in cages and there left to starve with food before their eyes."

Nagasaki, being the stronghold of Christianity, was the scene of the utmost refinements of cruelty. As usually happens in such cases martyrdom was sought as a special favour from God, and even women and children welcomed their fate with sincere joy. More and more the persecution became serious, and in 1629 a particularly zealous Governor instituted a minute system of house-to-house search, which achieved the desired object pretty thoroughly. In 1637 occurred the Shimbara rebellion which may be regarded as the crowning act of this long tragedy. The insurgents were partly the discontended subjects of the Prince of Arima and partly Native Christians who had been driven to despair by persecution. They assembled in force and taking possession of an old fort at Hara began to fortify it and store provisions. The Shogun Iyemitsu the Great sent an army to reduce the fort which held out for 102 days. In this siege the besiegers were aided by the Dutch guns at Hirado. The Dutch have been blamed for their share in this transaction. The rebels were all put to death without mercy, and Christianity never lifted up its head again until the advent of more tolerant times.

In 1600 a Dutch ship came ashore on one of the southern islands of Japan, and its pilot William Adams, being a straightforward, resourceful man, was the means of obtaining for the Dutch important concessions. He won the favour of Iyeyasu by being useful in building ships and conducting business with foreigners. At his instance the Dutch, who visited Japan several times, were in 1611 promised protection and support in their trade. This trade grew rapidly. The English, led by Captain Saris, opened trade in 1613 at Hirado, but the enmity of the Dutch prevented progress, and the job was finally abandoned in 1623 after a loss of £40,000. The Dutch gained the ear of the Japanese Government

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THE LATE MIKADO OF JAPAN.

THE LATE DOWAGER EMPRESS OF JAPAN.

H. M. LI HSI: King of Korea.

MARQUIS HIROBUMI ITO.

and partly out of trade jealousy, partly out of old political and religious feuds, gradually alienated the Shogun from the Portuguese and the Spanish merchants. In the end, in the year 1640 these latter were banished. But the suspicions of the people extended to all foreigners, and the Japanese Government increased the restrictions on trade and traders so much that even the Dutch were compelled to retire from most of the places where they had factories and confined to the little island of Deshima opposite Nagasaki. Thus Japan practically shut out Europe from her waters, and though at various times the Russians, Americans, and English tried to open negotiations, she remained in seclusion for over 200 years.

The story may pause here for a short account of the feudal system as it prevailed at this time. It originated at the time of Yoritomo who first appointed military chiefs to different parts of the Empire. These gradually absorbed the other powers also until they became practically absolute and even tried to set up independence. Tokugawa Iyeyasu, one of the greatest and wisest men that Japan has produced, reorganised this feudal system and so moulded it that it might secure the ascendancy of his own family. It must first be made clear, however, that the divine Emperor, though kept in seclusion, was always acknowledged as the fountain of power, and that the most powerful Shogun or Nobunaga or Hideyoshi never thought of doing away with the Emperor or usurping his style and dignity. The Emperer had his own court of which the highest posts were those of the *Kwampaku*, (Prime Minister), *Daijo Daijin* (Great Minister), *Udaijin*, (Minister of the Right), and *Sadaijin*, (Minister of the Left). The Shogun was the vassal of the Emperor and held his court at Yedo from 1603 onwards. He was to be a descendant of Iyeyasu in the lineal branch, and if that failed, he was to be chosen from one of three great families founded by three of Iyeyasu's sons and known as *Go-sanke*. They were the Princes of Owari, Kii, and Mito. Next after the *Go-sanke* in rank, dignity and power, came the *Kokushu* who were not vassals of the Shogun, but of the Emperor, and, when they visited the Shogun, were met by envoys and treated as honourble guests. Of these were 16, the most famous being Aidzu, Choshu, and Satsuma. Below these there were the nobles known as *Kamon*. They were 19 in number and belonged to the Tokugawa stock. Then came the *Fudai* who for loyalty to Iyeyasu were eligible for high posts, and the *Tozama* who were not. There were also a few families on whom for special services the honorific title of *matsudaira* was bestowed. Among the inferior nobility were the *Hatamoto* who owed allegiance directly to the Shogun and corresponded to the English baronets, and a slightly lower order called the *gokenin* also directly under the Shogun. Then came the gentry of Japan and her mainstay, the *Samurai*. They were retainers of the Shogun's vassals or daimyos and formed a special caste by themselves above the merchants, farmers and peasantry. They were exclusively the Kshatriyas of Japan. They were trained in Spartan simplicity and hardihood, and the physical culture they received was known as *jiu-jitsu*, its modren equivalent being the *judo* brought to prefection by Mr. Kano. They had a high code of honour which with some modifications forms to this day a system of practical ethics and is taught regularly in schools. It is known as *bushido*, and is an exact counterpart of the European code of chivalry though indeed like chivalry too it gradually degenerated in adverse times, and was often marred by pride, idleness, and brutality. Nevertheless much of the greatness and glory of Japan, both ancient and modern, is due to the Samurai; and though they no longer enjoy exclusive privileges, they have taken the chief share in the work of modren reconstruction and progress. When a member of the *Samurai* class ceased to be a vassal of his daimyo, he became a *Ronin* or free lance. Sometimes this was due to honorable causes, sometimes to dishonorable causes. A Samurai degraded from his rank became a *Ronin*. Often, however, whenever a deed of more than an ordinary risk and difficulty had to be done, failure in which would involve his master or community in disgrace or commit them too far, the Samurai would first disconnect himself from his society and become a *Ronin*. These *Ronins* play an important part in the relations of the Japanese to the Europeans.

The darkness that settled over Japan about the year 1640 when the exclusion of the foreigner was complete continued till 1853 when Commodore Perry with four large vessels anchored off Uraga near the modern Yokohama. He was sent by the United States to open the ports of Japan to American ships by peaceful negotiation supported by a display of force. The Americans were induced to do this by the discovery of gold in California which suddenly enhanced the importance of the trade route to Hongkong. This place is 6149 nautical miles from San Francisco, so that it became important to have a coaling station in Japan. The arrival of the foreign squadron gave

rise to a great commotion in the court of Yedo. The *bakufu* or the Shogun's Government tried to persuade Perry to proceed to Nagasaki and negotiate there as that was the only port open to foreigners. Finding him firm the *bakufu* asked for one year's time before giving an answer to the demands of America. The country split into two violent factions over this question, and for the first time during several centuries we hear of the Emperor's court at Kyoto coming out of its seclusion to take part in this all-important controversy. Its influence was cast against the opening of the country to foreigners, and this view commanded the support of the great body of feudal lords and the people. But the Shogun's Government, under the leadership of the masterful Ii-Kamon-no-kami, discerned the situation more truly and realised the danger to Japan in a refusal to admit foreigners. The party of admission was called *kai-koku*, and the party of exclusion was called *joi-i*. But another serious difference of opinion also divided the parties. The incompetence and misrule of the later Tokugawa Shoguns had estranged the powerful daimyos and the people in general who began to look back to the Emperor for the direct Government of the country. Jealousy and personal ambition added to the violence of this anti-Shogun feeling. An opinion had also grown up and gathered strength among the *literati* of the land that the Shoguns had only usurped power and abused it. The growth of learning had created in the people's minds a desire to re-establish Shintoism with the Emperor as the temporal as well as spiritual head. Thus the party of exclusion or *joi-i* was also the party of the Restoration or Osei, and, strange to say, it found a powerful leader in a Go-sanke Prince, the daimyo of Mito. In reply to a general call of opinion from all daimyos, this Prince sent to the *bakufu* a strongly worded document calling for the restoration of the executive powers to the Imperial family and a crusade against foreigners. But for a time his appeal was not successful, and in 1854 when Commodore Perry re-appeared, Ii Kamon secured the conclusion of a treaty at Shimoda opening that port and Hakodate to Americans. Similar treaties were made with England in 1854, with Russia in 1855 and Holland in 1856, and included the most-favoured-nation-clause. In 1857 the American representative Mr. Townsend Harris concluded with Ii Kamon the treaty of Kanagawa which, of course, was followed up by similar treaties with other foreign powers. As these continue to regulate the relations of Japan with the foreign powers, it may be useful to give their more important provisions. Hakodate, Kanagawa, and Nagasaki were to be opened in 1859, Ni-igata in 1860, Hyogo, Yedo, and Osaka in 1863. The importation of opium was forbidden. Intoxicating liquors were charged 35 per cent. duty, and other articles 5 per cent. This tariff was open to revision after 1872. Diplomatic agents were to travel freely in the Empire, while other foreigners could do so only in particular areas. All foreigners were to remain within the jurisdiction of the respective consular agents. Cases in which they were defendants as against Japanese were to be tried by the Consular Courts, while those in which the Japanese were defendants as against foreigners were within the jurisdiction of the Native Courts.

The foreign powers concluded these treaties in the faith that the Shogun had full authority to treat with them and looked to his Government or the Bakufu for the due fulfilment of the articles. Among the Japanese, however, the Shogun's authority was widely questioned, and Ii Kamon-no-kami became specially unpopular on account of his avowed pro-foreign inclinations. He was a man of great strength of will and political sagacity. But his useful life was cut short in A. D. 1861 by assassination at the instigation, it is said, of the Prince of Mito whom he had compelled to retire from the Court of Yedo. He was succeeded in the regency by a son of the Prince of Mito called Hitotsubashi. The new Regent was a man of peace and mature judgment and perhaps also shared the views of his House as to the authority of the Shogun. Nor were the assassinations and outrages confined to pro-foreign Japanese statesmen. Foreigners themselves were the especial hatred at this time of bodies of *Ronins* who wandered all over the country and gathered in force at the important places. From what has been said of the *Ronins* before, it is clear that the local daimyos would have no control over them, and the Bakufu was too feeble and disunited to keep them in perfect order. So that it is no wonder that the Japanese themselves call the period between 1859 and 1868 a period of perfect chaos. The Bakufu was all the same held responsible by the outraged foreign powers who do not appear to have either realised the difficulties of the Government or used their own advantageous position with moderation. The more spirited among the Japanese leaders, those who later on made their way to the forefront must have keenly felt the humiliating position of their nation at this time, but with wonderful self-control and single-mindedness they set about learning the

civilisation of the West and deserving the position of equality which they afterwards claimed and obtained from the European Powers. In 1861 Mr. Heusken, Secretary to the American Legation, was killed and the Bakufu paid a compensation of $10,000 to his mother. The same year the British Legation was attacked, and the Government apologised and pleaded inability to guarantee the safety of foreigners unless they consented to be confined in the legations and protected. Next year *i.e.*, in 1862 a more serious attack was made on the British Legation and as two lives were lost, the British exacted an indemnity of £10,000. In view of the complications into which the presence of foreigners frequently led the Government, and of the increased price of provisions, the derangement of the currency and the threatening famine, the Government was anxious to postpone the opening of Hyogo, Yedo, and Osaka, and to secure this object, the first embassy from Japan to Western countries (if we except the Christian embassies to the Pope) was despatched in 1862. It included two members of the Choshu clan who were destined to rise to fame, Ito and Inouye. The object of the mission was achieved, the ports having to be opened only in 1868. More than that, the ambassadors had raised the esteem in which the Japanese were held by the great powers, and returned with a knowledge of the great strength and enlightenment of the West, and a firm conviction that Japan was quite unequal to a fight with Europe until she should have found a stong central government and patiently learned the lessons of European civilisation.

On their return in 1864 they found the country in a state of great confusion and excitement and their own clan at war with the Treaty Powers. In 1862 the Emperor had ordered a conference of daimyos to be held under the presidency of the Shogun at Yedo for settling the foreign question. The conference came to nothing. But while Shimazu, uncle and guardian of the Satsuma chief, was returning, his train fell in with a party of Englishmen. One of this party, Mr. Richardson, disobeyed the rule of the road in not dismounting or saluting as he passed the chief. He was struck down by one of Shimazu's retainers and soon after died of his wounds. The British demanded £100,000 damages from the Bakufu and £20,000 from Satsuma. The Bakufu complied, but Satsuma would not. So the English fleet attacked Kagoshima in 1863 and taught the clan a severe lesson, the batteries being completely destroyed and the whole town burnt down. The lesson was not lost on the Satsuma chief who at once sent to Europe a batch of students for learning Western methods of war and Western institutions generally. Count Terashima and Mori Arinori were among them. The Imperial Court of Kyoto, however, continued ignorant and summoned a second conference to decide the foreign question in consultation with the Emperor himself. To this conference the Shogun himself went, thus practically surrendering his supremacy in executive administration and foreshadowing his eventual fall. The party of violence prevailed at this conference, and the Emperor commanded the Shogun to make preparations for the expulsion of the foreigner. The Shogun communicated the Imperial will to the Foreign Powers, but did nothing more, and it is said that Hitotsubashi even resigned office rather than carry out this foolish order. This hesitation did not suit the wilder spirits who gathered under the Choshu leader and declared war against the foreigners on their own account. Accordingly in 1863 an American, a French, and a Dutch vessel were fired on as they passed the Straits of Shimonoseki. A squadron of American and Duch ships took signal vengeance by destroying the Choshu batteries. As if this was not sufficient, the Foreign Powers were organising a big expedition against Choshu when Ito and Inouye, having just returned from their embassy, tried to persuade their chief to submit. But they did not succeed, and the punitive expedition destroyed everything that could be found at Shimonoseki and exacted inordinately heavy penalties both from the Bakufu and from the offending daimyo. The whole of this proceeding was quite unjustifiable and is a signal example of the arrogant and overbearing manner in which foreigners carry on their relations with the weaker powers of the East. Choshu had, however, learned a bitter lesson and might be counted hereafter like Satsuma to correct the anti-foreign tendencies of the Imperial Court. Now also was laid the foundation of the future army of Japan trained in Western tactics and armed with Western implements, and not confined as till now to the *Samurai* gentry.

Besides these, other outrages on foreigners occurred with dangerous frequency, including the murder of two British officers. The Yedo Government, driven to despair, sent out an embassy to the French in 1864 proposing that Kanagawa should be closed and foreign trade confined to Hakodate and Nagasaki. In this, however, they failed utterly. In 1865 an event of some consequence occurred. The Shogun was at Osaka and

received the representatives of the Treaty Powers. It was suggested that the Emperor should be requested to ratify the treaties. The Shogun recommended the memorial, and the Emperor reluctantly consented to give his sanction to the treaties. Thus for a second time the supremacy of the Emperor even in civil affairs was tacitly acknowledged by the Shogun. In 1866 the Shogun died and was succeeded by his Regent Hitotsubashi under the name of Yoshinobo. A few months later the Emperor Komei also died and was succeeded by the Emperor Mutsuhito, A. D. 1867.

Towards the close of the same year the Prince of Toza wrote a strong letter to the Shogun exhorting him for the sake of the country's welfare to resign his powers into the hands of the Emperor. The Shogun felt the force of the appeal, and in a letter to his own vassels, said:

"It appears to me that the laws cannot be maintained in face of the daily extension of our foreign relations, unless the Government be conducted by one head, and I propose therefore to surrender the whole governing power into the hands of the Imperial Court. This is the best thing I can do for the interests of the Empire."

We have seen how a feeling of aversion to the Shogun's rule had grown up in the land and how people had begun to look once more to the Emperor. We have seen how his power had become weaker and weaker, and his situation more and more complicated. We have also seen how by his own act he had rendered himself unnecessary to the Treaty Powers who had secured their position by the Emperor's consent. Notwithstanding all this, we must remember that he was in possession of large and practically unlimited powers and in the enjoyment of a dignity second only to that of the Emperor, if at all, and which had descended to him through a long line of ancestors. Besides, as will appear later, he was still able, if he desired, to put forth a serious effort to recover lost ground. But he realised the needs of his country, and true to his own character and the traditions of the Mito family to which he belonged, he performed an act of self-abnegation to which it is not easy to find a parallel. The Emperor accepted his resignation, but requested him for a time to continue the administration. The Shogun retired to Osaka, and in January 1868 appeared an Imperial Edict abolishing the office of Shogun. The administration was given to a provisional government, and several departments were formed with powerful chiefs at the head of each. Thus the Go-isshin or the Great Revolution seemed to have been accomplished in peace.

But it was not to be so. The ex-Shogun's friends thought that he had been unjustly dealt with and moreover felt particularly insulted at the recall of the Choshu clan whom as rebels they had caused to be banished from the Imperial Court. Urged by them, but against his own better sense, the ex-Shogun raised the standard of rebellion and fought the Imperial troops on the roads between Osaka and Yedo. The victory fell to the Imperialists. The ex-Shogun did not continue the struggle long. Osaka was burnt to the ground, and at Yedo the ex-Shogun consented to surrender completely and live in seclusion at Sumpu, the residence of Iyeyasu. His followers held out a little long, and at Hakodate even endeavoured to establish a Republic. It was in July 1869 that the rebellion came to an end altogether.

As soon as the Provisional Government was formed, the Treaty Powers were informed of the momentous change, and invited to an audience before the restored Emperor. Except for a slight incident, the reception went off well, and the Emperor issued a strict edict threatening with severe penalties any act of violence to the foreigners whom henceforth His Majesty took under his especial protection. The ports of Hyogo, Osaka and Yedo had also opened as promised. The new year-period was called Meiji which means enlightened peace, and dates from January 1868. Events then moved quickly. The spirit animating the new Emperor and his advisers seemed to mark an incredible change in the whole character, aims, and methods of administration, and might be gathered from the words of the Charter Oath which the Emperor took before his court in 1869 and which on account of its supreme interest deserves to be reproduced in full:—

(1) A deliberative assembly shall be formed, and all measures decided by public opinion.

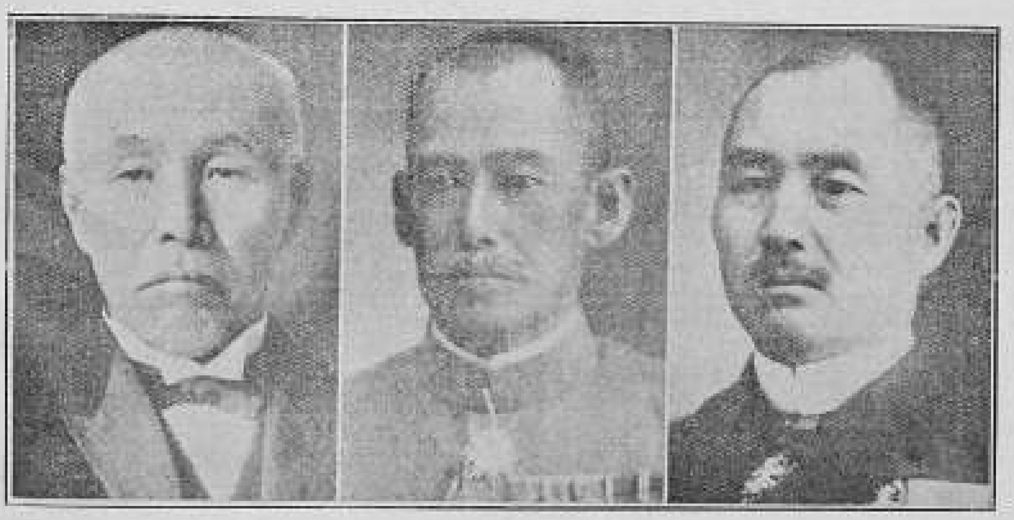
(2) The principles of social and political economics should be diligently studied by both the superior and inferior classes of our people.

(3) Every one in the community shall be assisted to persevere in carrying out his will for all good purposes.

(4) All the absurd usages of former times should be disregarded, and the impartiality and justice displayed in the workings of nature be adopted as the basis of action.

(5) Wisdom and ability should be sought after in all quarters of the world for the purpose of firmly establishing the foundations of the Empire.

JAPAN LEADERS.



COUNT OKUMA.
(Premier.)

COUNT OKA.
(Minister of War.)

VICE-ADMIRAL KUROI.
(Commanding the Home Fleet.)

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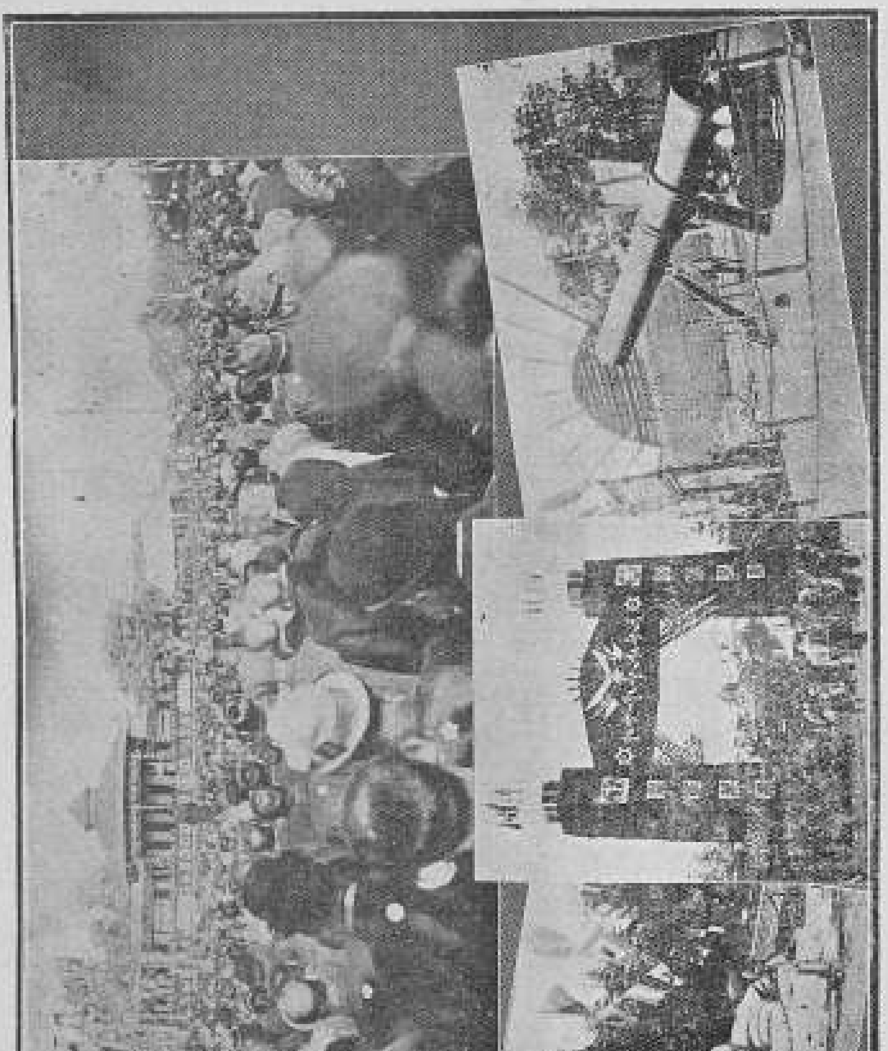

TOKYO CELEBRATING THE FALL OF TSINGTAU

The history of Japan from this point is one steadfast and strenuous endeavour to accomplish this noble programme. A striking outward manifestation of the new spirit was the removal in the same year of the capital from Kyoto to Yedo, brought about at the instance of the great statesman, Okudo Toschimichi of Satsuma. To this reference has already been made.

We now come to what is perhaps one of the most marvellous events in the history of any people. It is almost incredible that it is within the possibilities of human nature for a whole body of lords to surrender of their own free will, territories and powers which they had possessed for long ages, and yet this is what the Daimyos did at this wonderful period. A memorial to the Emperor prepared by Kido Takayoshi and signed by the Lords of Choshu, Satsuma, Tosa and others contained the following eloquent passage.

"The place where we live is the Emperor's land and the food which we eat is grown by the Emperor's men. How can we make it our own? We now reverently offer up the lists of our possessions and men with the prayer that the Emperor will take good measures for rewarding those to whom reward is due and taking from those to whom punishment is due. Let the Imperial orders be issued for altering and remodelling the territories of the various classes. Let the civil and penal codes, the military laws. . . . all proceed from the Emperor. Let all the affairs of the Empire, great and small, be referred to him."

The example of these great Barons was followed by nearly all the others, and in 1871 the feudal system was abolished by Imperial decree, the daimiates being replaced by prefectures or *ken*. To make the change gradual the first prefects were the daimyos themselves, but soon their incompetency led to their being replaced by men of merit and capacity. The Government undertook to compensate the feudal lords and the bodies of *Samurai* whom they had hitherto maintained, and it had to incur for this purpose a debt of $65,1000,000. Of these *Samurai*, Mr. Prothero writes:

"Nothing probably in the whole course of this remarkable Revolution is more striking than the unselfish patriotism which led the bulk of these men—there were four hundred thousand of them—warriors by birth and tradition, sensitive to anything like dishonour, to give up their swords and their class privileges, and to become ordinary citizens. The nobles retained high positions and ample incomes; but their retainers surrendered almost all that hitherto had seemed to make life worth living."

The year 1871 saw two more events of significance. The classes called *eta* and *heimin* that had been labouring under disabilities were placed on the same legal footing as the rest of the people. The famous Iwakura embassy was sent this year for the purposes of securing a revision of the treaties which placed Japan in a sort of inferiority to European Powers, and of studying the institutions of the West. It consisted of Prince Iwakura, Kido Takayoshi, Okubo Toschimichi, Ito Hirobumi, and Yamaguchi Naoyoshi.

The revision of the treaties was not possible, but the embassy returned in 1873 with a vast mass of information which greatly quickened men's reforming ideas, though it pointed in no single direction. In 1872 universal military service was made obligatory. The first railway was opened at the same time between Yokohama and Tokyo. The promise of popular Government made in the first clause of the Charter Oath could not be fulfilled yet, as the leading statesmen felt that the time had not come to take the people into partnership in the State. The *Kogisho*, the first deliberative assembly called in the Meiji era, did not give satisfaction, nor did its successors. In 1873 Count Itagaki presented a petition asking for representative institutions. The petition was refused, but some cautious steps in advance were taken. The local governors were summoned to Tokyo to advise on matters of local interest. In 1875 a Senate called Genro-in consisting of high officials and leading men was formed. Some diplomatic transactions in which Japan maintained her position and prestige belong to this date. The people of Formosa had killed some islanders of Loo-choo who were vassals of Japan and had been wrecked on the Formosan coast. An expedition under Saigo Tsugumichi brought the Formosans to their senses, and China which claimed sovereignty over Formosa agreed to pay an indemnity for the cost of the expedition in 1874. An old boundary-dispute between Japan and Russia in the Island of Saghalien was settled in 1875 by Japan giving up her claims in Saghalien in return for Russia giving up hers to the Kurile Islands. The Koreans unexpectedly attacked a Japanese ship which applied for coal and provisions on their coasts. General Kuroda Kiyataka was at once sent out with a squadron in 1876. The Koreans were glad to come to an understanding and concluded a treaty of amity and commerce.

Between 1874 and 1877 there were several small disturbances and one formidable rebellion. The forces of discontent and reaction, added to some real distress among the old samurai and ronins, found expression in the provinces that had always in Japanese history been scenes of rebellion and bloodshed,—Choshu and Satsuma. The first

ones were easily put down, but the one under the popular hero of the Samurai, Saigo Takamori, shook the young Government to its centre. The rebels wasted time in the seige of Kumamoto built by Kato Kiyomasa, and the *delay* enabled the Imperial forces to be collected and despatched to its relief. This done, the rebel army fought several determined battles, but was obliged finally to surrender in A.D. 1877. Saigo, after holding out for a while, was reduced to great straits and requested one of his friends to sever his head from his body. The death of this idol of Japanese chivalry was avenged by the assassination in 1878 of one of the best patriots of the day, Okubo Toschimichi. This great statesman had just secured the institution of local assemblies in the prefectures and larger cities as a preparation for a further step in popular Government. In 1881 the Emperor published an edict in which he definitely undertook to establish a Parliament in 1890. The constitution therefore was the subject of eager discussion everywhere. Ito Hirobumi proceeded once more to Europe to study the constitutions of different States. He returned with a mass of material on which he was labouring for years while several minor steps were being taken against the great event. In 1884 the peerage was remodelled on Western lines,—Princes, Marquises, Counts, Viscounts and Barons. Next year a Cabinet was formed and in 1888 a Privy Council, of each of which, as it was formed, Count Ito became President. Civil and Criminal Laws were also codified and humanised in this period of activity. Finally in February 1889, the new Constitution was duly proclaimed, and the Imperial Diet met for the first time in 1890. We cannot give here an idea of the Japanese Constitution as it will take up too much space. The Emperor appears to have far greater powers under it than constitutional monarchs elsewhere. In the third year of the Diet the Marquis of Ito's ministry was defeated on the question of increased military expenditure and also impeached. The Emperor then intervened with a message of singular moderation, conciliation, and self-sacrifice. The following is an extract from it:

"We have ordered the expenditure of our household to be cut down, so that we may be able to contribute a yearly sum of yen 300,000 for the next six years to the necessary equipment of national defences. We have at the same time ordered all officers and officials in our service to contribute, unless excused by us for exceptional reasons, one-tenth of their salaries, for the same period of years, towards the expenses of naval construction. We depend therefore, on the co-operation, along constitutional lines, of ministers and representatives, in the accomplishment of our great national tasks; and we call upon our people, one and all, to do their duties in this matter."

The message gave, it is said, an electric shock to the nation, and of course had the desired effect. The adoption of constitutional Government was signalised by the conclusion in 1894 of a new treaty between England and Japan which in consideration of the opening of Japan to trade, put an end to the rights of extra-territoriality of the British settlements, abolished the consular jurisdictions, and handed them over to the native courts. The other Treaty Powers speedily followed the example. This consummation, so long struggled for, was naturally rejoiced over in Japan as it marks her full admission to the comity of nations. The feelings on the occasion of the Mikado and his government may be guessed from the following weighty words:

"Considering that the revised treaties are now about to come into force, we may regard this movement with joy and hearty satisfaction; and while on the one hand we recognise the responsibilities which the altered state of things imposes on the Empire, on the other we hope that the new conditions will contribute to build up our friendly relations with the Powers on a basis yet firmer than before. We expect therefore, from our loyal subjects, ever ready as they are to discharge their public duties, that, in accordance with our wishes and the enlightened principles of our national policy, they will without exception receive in a kindly spirit the strangers who come to us from distant lands, and will thus strive to raise the national reputation and maintain the dignity of the Empire."

Apt learners as the Japanese are reputed to be, their mastery of the art of constitutional Government has been slow, if even now it could be asserted to be complete. At first, as was only to be expected, the parties had no dividing lines of policy, but grouped themselves round personalities. Counts Itagaki and Okuma, for example, led groups respectively called Liberals and Progressists, though no clear demarcation of principles could be made between them. They were alike in opposing the Government of the day, whose pace in the march to full constitutionalism was too slow for them. In reality the Cabinet was no less desirous than they were of progress, but had to move cautiously. Under the leadership of Ito, chief of the *genro* or elder statesmen, the successive steps forward were taken wisely and in order. But mistakes were unavoidable and the ministry was subject to many shocks. One of these was so severe that the famous Li Hung Chang of China thought it a favourable occasion for depriving Japan of the voice she had gained in controlling the affairs of Korea. In 1894 a crisis occurred

in the Government of this "independent" kingdom, which by its ineptitude and venality had provoked a violent rebellion. China, being appealed to for help, sent a force and, in accordance with a subsisting treaty, duly notified Japan of her move. But in doing so, she described Korea as a tributary power and seemed determined to exercise suzerain authority to the exclusion of Japan. Resentment ran high in Tokyo, domestic discord was hushed, and the nation was united in a resolve to vindicate her prestige. A force larger than China's was promptly despatched and took up quarters near Seoul, the Korean capital. An incident, such as seldom fails to happen on these occasions, led to a formal declaration of war. Japan's blows were swift and decisive. Two land battles and a naval engagement near the mouth of the Yalu river enabled her to carry the war into Manchuria. The campaign lasted six months during which the triumph of the Japanese arms was uninterrupted and Port Arthur was captured. The road to Pekin lay open and the march of the victorious army had begun, when the proud Li Hung Chang proceeded in person to sue for peace. The treaty of Shimonoseki, signed in April 1895, provided, besides a large war indemnity and certain commercial privileges, that China should renounce for ever her pretensions of suzerainty over Korea and that the peninsula of Liao Tung including Port Arthur and Formosa and the Pescadore islands should be ceded to Japan. The jealousy of certain European powers, however, deprived her of the greatest of these advantages. Russia, France and Germany, the last of which had yet acquired no substantial interest in China, joined together to put diplomatic pressure on the Japanese Government, which was too exhausted to offer effective resistance and thought it safe to surrender Port Arthur and the Liao Tung peninsula. Three years later, Russia acquired Port Arthur and other privileges from a prostrate China. Japan, as we shall see, nursed the insult till she could avenge it signally.

The year 1900 brought her an opportunity. During the troubles brought on by the Boxer rising in China, she held back till the Powers were obliged to call her in, and the reserve and dignity of her conduct and the almost exemplary discipline of her sodiery won her their respect and admiration.

The far-seeing and cautious diplomacy of Great Britain saw the enormous advantage of an alliance with the rising Power of the East, and in 1902 was concluded the Anglo-Japanese alliance which is now in the titanic conflict of Europe of inestimable benefit to the Allied Powers. By this alliance each party was bound to consult the other fully and frankly in all matters involving their interests, to remain neutral when the other was at war with a single Power and to assist the other when at war with more than one Power.

Domestic politics never ran smooth except when the state was menaced with external danger. The *genro* or Elder Statesmen, on whom the Mikado relied entirely, were practically omnipotent in administration, and Government by the Diet existed only in name, so long as the Cabinet were responsible to the Emperor and could defy the majority in the Diet to do their worst. The *genro* being mostly composed of the leaders of the chief clans, particularly the Satsuma and Choshu clans of historic fame, their power came to be hated as the clan-government, and Counts Itagaki and Okuma in vain hurled their forces at its citadel. Once indeed in 1898, yielding to the advice of Marquis Ito, the Mikado summoned them to form a Cabinet in combination, but they did not hold together long. In 1900, Ito who had kept aloof from parties, himself formed a party called the *Seiyukai*, association of friends of the constitution, which he led for three years, being succeeded by another highly respected member of the *genro*, Marquis Saionji. This party has generally commanded a majority in the Diet, and, while not exempt from the vicissitudes to which political organizations are subject in a state where party Government has not yet securely established itself, may be said to be the most powerful political school in Japan. It has gradually absorbed the Liberals and adopted the principle of ministerial responsibility to the Diet while the cry of party Cabinets is the peculiar mark of the Progressists.

No squabbles in the Diet, however, could arrest the phenomenal growth in the prosperity and enlightenment of the Japanese people. Everything that science and organization could do was applied to the internal development of the country's resources, and we find her commerce with the outside world growing by leaps and bounds. A well-devised system of education increased the national efficiency many times over, while strengthening in an extraordinary degree the peculiarly national virtues of pride of country and patriotism.

The restless aggression of Russia in Manchuria was a standing threat to the independence of Korea. Japan therefore joined Great Britain

and the United States in extracting from Russia a promise to evacuate Manchuria in three instalments at three fixed periods. The promise was not kept. Backed by the moral support of her allies, Japan carried on negotiations with Russia, but could make no impression on the unyielding diplomacy of the great northern empire. Instead of withdrawing from Manchuria or giving the required guarantees of the independence of China and Korea and of "the open door" everywhere, Russia only despatched additional men-of-war and forces to the East. Neither self-respect nor patience could hold out longer. Japan for her part had not been idle. Knowing her enemy well, she had made every preparation for war and taken every precaution. The enthusiasm of the people knew no bounds. The Navy and the Army were alike eager for the supreme test. Once more political dissensions were laid aside and every nerve was strained in the country's cause. As soon as it became clear that war was inevitable, the coolness and calculation of Admiral Togo prevented the junction of the scattered detachments of the Russian fleet and secured the undisputed command of the sea. When war was actually declared, therefore, Japan was able to land her armies when and where she chose. The world rang during 1904 and the greater part of 1905 with stories of the reckless valour and ecstatic self-sacrifice of Japanese soldiers, while the thoroughness and precision of the arrangements that had been made in all the details of campaigning was the wonder of the older Powers of the West. Port Arthur, believed to be as impregnable as science could make any fortress, fell after a protracted siege by land and by sea, adding immeasurably to the reputation of the victor. Manchuria was the scene of the land operations, the opposed armies meeting for mortal combat in no fewer than six great battles. One of these engagements, that of Liao-Yung, lasted nine days, while the most sanguinary and famous battle of the war, that of Mukden, raged for fourteen days. The victories fell to Japan, but were gained at too great cost. But a dramatic triumph was in store for her. Soon after the partial destruction of the Russian fleet and its signal defeat near the Yalu, the Czar's advisers ordered the Baltic fleet to proceed to the Pacific under the command of Admiral Rozshestvenski. Naval critics were full of misgivings as to its fate. The Japanese admiral had made a perfect secret of his tactics. Expectation had been raised to the highest pitch, when almost suddenly the news was flashed round the world that the fleets had engaged each other in the straits of Tsushima and that the Russian fleet had been destroyed. Trafalgar had not been more decisive.

Both parties were sorely in need of rest, when the President of the United States offered to mediate. The ambassadors met at Portsmouth in New Hampshire in August 1905, and the treaty was signed in September. The principal terms were: Korea was acknowledged to be within Japan's sphere of influence; the Liao-Tung peninsula with Port Arthur was ceded to her; Russia was to give away the southern half of Saghalien and the control of the southern section of the Manchurian railway; she was also to evacuate southern Manchuria and transfer to Japan all the privileges she had obtained from China. It will be seen that Japan got practically nothing by this costly and exhausting war which she had not already won by the Chinese War of 1894-95. The burdens laid on the people by the war and by the greatly increased army and navy rendered necessary by her new possessions and entanglements were oppressive.

The administration of Korea was a great problem. The effects of long years of misrule could not be easily effaced. The people were suspicious and resentful, and the wilder spirits fancied it their duty to resist the reforms that Japanese statesmen introduced into the administration. Count Inouye, Viscount Muira and Baron Komura had successively represented her at the Korean capital, and now after the Russian war, the Mikado appointed Prince Ito himself Resident-General at Seoul. The aged statesman entered on his task with characteristic energy; but as the indefinite conditions of a protectorate did not give him a free hand, the old Emperor of Korea was forced to abdicate and in the minority of the next heir and successors, Prince Ito exercised unchecked authority. In the progress of this beneficent and humane task, he met his death by the hand of an assassin in 1909. Thus in tragedy closed one of the most remarkable lives in the history of the human race. Few sons of man have done greater things or left more honoured memories behind. Korea was formally annexed in 1910.

The same year Japan adopted a highly protective tariff, which caused much stir among the commercial nations of the world. Its effects however, were modified, so far as Great Britain was concerned, by a special treaty of commerce. At about the same time in 1911 the alliance

between these two powers, which had been found advantageous to both sides, was renewed for another ten years. The one new condition was that "if either of the contracting parties was at war with a Power with which it had a treaty of arbitration, neither of the parties should be under an obligation to give its support." Obviously this provision was intended to avert the complications that were apprehended as a result of the strained relations between the United States and Japan over the treatment of emigrants from the latter country into the former.

The good Emperor Mutsu-Hito, whose long reign called the Meiji Era began in 1868, died in 1912. Restored in his own person to the actual powers of Emperor, of which his house had for centuries been deprived, Mutsu-Hito had witnessed and had himself been "a part" of many wonderful transformations which may be summed up as the growth of a nation from infancy to full adolescence. The grief of the nation at his death was most profound, and various were the ways in which it expressed itself. But the most startling and the most characteristic expression was the suicide of General Nogi the hero of Port Arthur and Mukden on the occasion of the funeral. No gift of sympathetic imagination will enable one to understand fully the extraordinary contempt of life that the Japanese display on unexpected occasions. *Harakiri*, however, is an ordinary incident in their annals and need not surprise any one who remembers that twenty eminent officersof the army disembowled themselves in *Samurai* fashion when they learned that the premature conclusion of the peace of Shimonoseki in 1895 prevented their march on Pekin. The Empress had borne no child; Mutsu-Hito's successor, in the most ancient and one of the most illustrious of the thrones on the face of the earth, Yoshi-Hito, is his son by one of his other consorts. The new era will be known as the Taisho or Great Resolutions. A severe Cabinet crisis occurred soon after the new Emperor's accession. The war minister made a demand of money for two fresh army divisions for the defence of Korea. The Cabinet by an overwhelming majority refused the grant. The war minister resigned, and his place could not be filled up, for the law required that his portfolio should be held by an officer of the Army and the Army boycotted the ministry. The Premier, Marquis Saionji, was obliged to resign. He was succeeded by Prince Katsura, who had to withdraw in a few days owing to the violence of popular clamour. His successor in the Prime-Minister's position was Admiral Count Yamamoto who in his turn has given place to Count Okuma. This great statesman, held in great estimation by the people for his independence, love of democracy, and zeal for education, has, except for two brief periods, never held office before. Great expectations are entertained that his tenure of office will be marked by the overthrow of clan-government and the firm establishment of a truly democratic administration.

The last few years have been marked by acute controversy with the United States Government. California has by express legislation excluded the Japanese along with other Asiatics, and the proud and sensitive nation keenly resent it. In spite of President Wilson's strong disapprobation, the State law continues in operation; but unpleasantness has been averted for the time being by an understanding that a certain number of Japanese shall be allowed to enter annually.

THE "JAPAN DAILY MAIL" ON "THE INDIAN REVIEW."

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BRITISH FOREIGN POLICY

BY MR. T. E. WELBY.

IT is the German case against us that Great Britain has persistently stood in Germany's way, needlessly thwarted legitimate German ambitions and finally created a great league of Powers against that blameless and pacific country. The charge is of course too preposterous for elaborate refutation. But it is well worth while reviewing British foreign policy during the last forty years or so to see where and how Great Britain has been at variance with Germany.

Friction really began in 1875. At that date, to the extreme disgust of Germany, France had made a marvellous recovery from her downfall, and in the early part of this year she had increased her army by adding a fourth battalion to every regiment in the French army. At the same time in France, as in every other country where there were Roman Catholics, there was being heard some sharp criticism of the policy of Germany towards Romanist interests. Bismarck, who deplored not having "bled France white," professed to believe the utterly senseless story that France was seeking to create a Romanist league against Germany. But this pretence was not taken seriously by the Germans themselves, and there was little disguise of the fact that Germany contemplated a second war against France simply in order to crush her for ever and thus repair the omission of 1870-71, when her power of recuperation had been underestimated. At this juncture, both Great Britain and Russia intervened. The full story is not yet known. Readers of the memoirs of contemporary diplomatists are well aware, however, that Lord Derby gave definite assurances to the French *chargé d'affaires* in London and that Lord Odo Russell, the British Ambassador in Berlin, spoke plainly to Bismarck on the subject. Bismarck professed complete innocence. Whereupon Lord Odo Russell dryly requested the Chancellor to censure the German Ambassadors in London, Paris and St. Petersburg, who had been guilty of the error of misleading foreign governments as to German intentions. For once Bismarck had no retort.

Thereafter for some years Anglo-German relations were not seriously strained. Bismarck was busy in the formation of the Triple Alliance. Here unfortunately Great Britain, through an indiscretion of Lord Salisbury, contributed to his success. The Chancellor was aware of the difficulty of getting Italy into the Alliance. He resolved to play on her jealousy of French colonial expansion and he cunningly intimated to Lord Salisbury that Germany would not object to French occupation of Tunis, to which Italy had sentimental claims, and thus elicited the British statesman's approval in advance. When Italy protested, British diplomacy evidently failed to reveal in Rome the fact that the suggestion had come from Berlin.

The time had now come when Germany could enter on a colonial policy of her own, to which till then Bismarck had entertained some objection. The Germans had been annoyed by British annexation of Walfish Bay in 1878. In 1883 further trouble arose in South-West Africa. A certain German merchant had purchased a large piece of land at Angra Pequena, on the west and about 200 miles from the Orange River. This man appealed for German protection. The German Government enquired whether Great Britain would guarantee him protection. Now obviously Great Britain was under no moral or other obligation to undertake his protection. Equally obviously she could not allow Germany to exact from her a free hand to take "protective" measures, probably culminating in annexation in the event of trouble with the native tribes. Lord Granville after many delays made that clear. The German elections were then on, and a great deal of ill-feeling was therefore excited. The rebuff Bismarck had received was used as a bit of party capital. In the end Great Britain yielded, and so began the building up of German South-West Africa. On the east also friction arose, over Delagoa Bay, but here even Mr. Gladstone's Government could not yield. Mr. Gladstone nevertheless was friendly to German colonial expansion, so long as it did not seriously interfere with vested British interests, and in a well known speech he wished it "God speed." The other great British statesman of the period, Lord Salisbury, was still friendlier, and in fact was much too complaisant, chiefly because in those days he regarded Germany as a check on Russia. The agreement he concluded with Germany in 1890 was distinctly one-sided, for the transfer of Heligoland was a strategic error of the first magnitude, and all that Germany really conceded in Africa was the acknowledgment of British claims that could not have been dis-

puted. However, the avoidance of further friction in Africa was a considerable advantage, though only a temporary one, and the British acquisition of Bechuanaland had driven a wedge between German territory and the Boer Republics. There was some excuse for hoping that there would be no more trouble in Africa.

Trouble followed nevertheless. The Jameson raid drew from the Kaiser the historic telegram to President Kruger, and there is now no doubt that if Germany had possessed a strong fleet in 1896 there would have been an Anglo-German War. In 1897-98 the policies of Great Britain and Germany in the Far East were seen to be in some opposition, but the South African War soon put all other subjects out of mind. The fury of the German people against Great Britain took extreme and repulsive forms. How far the Kaiser was with his people is uncertain, but he seized the opportunity to develop his naval policy. From that moment, this war became almost inevitable, for Germany had entered on a naval rivalry which in the end could only result in either a conflict with Great Britain or the admission to the German people that the enormous expenditure had been merely to gratify vanity.

The British response, after the war, was the cultivation of specially cordial relations with France and later on with France's ally, Russia. The *Entente Cordiale*, developed later into the *Triple Entente*, had no offensive edge; it was purely defensive, and Great Britain steadily refrained from embodying it in any compact for military and naval co-operation. On the eve of this war she was still not bound to assist France or Russia with men or money in war. The fact was known to the whole world, and it was generally supposed by German statesmen that as a matter of fact she would keep out of the war—which makes it peculiarly absurd for the German Press to allege that Great Britain was in any sense conspiring against Germany, for the first step in a conspiracy would have been a very definite military and naval convention, with a binding promise to stand together in war.

We were, however, anticipating. In 1905, immediately after the beginning of the Anglo-French understanding, came Germany's blusterous entrance into the Moroccan question. Its object was plain: Great Britain and France were to be separated. France had to yield, but she at once voted £60 million for military purposes. Germany replied by constructing strategic railways towards the Belgian frontier. At the Algeciras Conference the German attempt to drive a wedge between England and France was renewed, without success. In 1908 came the crisis caused by the Austro-Hungarian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the German ultimatum to Russia, who, being unready in a military sense after the Russo-Japanese War, had to yield as France had done three years earlier.

The policy of bluster was developing apace, but still Great Britain hoped for an understanding with Germany. The limitation of armaments was seriously discussed. The 1911 Morocco crisis was the next and most dangerous German attempt to split the *Triple Entente*. At length Great Britain was forced to the verge of war, but Germany was not ready. At least, she hoped that three or four years later she would be relatively stronger, for her naval programme was increasing and the work on the Kiel Canal was in progress. As a matter of fact she miscalculated. But Great Britain once more raised the question of "a naval holiday," or pause in construction, and during the Balkan crisis Great Britain co-operated with Germany. The huge increase in the peace strength of the German Army evolved no reply from the British. In the face of every indication that Germany was making ready for war, Great Britain cherished the hope of improving Anglo-German relations. On the 1st January 1914, Mr. Lloyd George actually announced that the moment was peculiarly favourable for the reduction of British naval and military expenditure. At the last Great Britain deferred action until it was almost too late. But in German eyes she was plotting against Germany.

BRITISH APPRECIATION OF "THE INDIAN REVIEW."

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GERMAN DIPLOMACY:—1870-1914

BY PROF. R. M. STATHAM, B.A.,

ACTING PRINCIPAL GOVERNMENT COLLEGE, KUMBAKONAM.

BRIEFLY Prussian diplomacy of the seventies resulted in an understanding with Russia and Italy, the successful fomenting of friction between England and France, France and Russia, Russia and Austria, Austria and Italy, the isolation and destruction of Austria, the annihilation of France, the acquiring of Kiel, with all its intense significance to future history, union and Empire, the Three Emperors League, and the Triple Alliance.

In sharp contrast Prussian diplomacy of the nineties and "tens" has resulted in the *Entente Cordiale*, the good understanding between Russia, France and England, the alienation of Italy, the isolation of Germany and Austria against a world combination of the British Empire, France, Russia, Belgium, Japan, Servia, Montenegro, with the hostile neutrality of Portugal and Italy and the distrust of the world. To add Turkey to the German alliance would only be an insult to the sick man who has been forcibly held in his bed, and operated on against his will.

That England should have been thrown into the arms of Russia—her greatest rival in past international politics in the near and far-east; and that the *Entente Cordiale* should have been substituted for "Perfide Albion" is sufficient proof either of wanton diplomacy or egregious folly.

Not only was Bismarck great enough to carve out an empire by diplomacy and war, but he was wise enough to forsee the result of Germany's obsession.*

The Iron Chancellor warned his country and his Emperor, shortly before he died. One might almost apply to his successors the phrase which Cunningham applied to the Stuarts "They did not limit their projects with due regard to their resources"

If the inner history of the war has done one thing more than another it has emphasized once more the intrepid and masterly diplomacy of Bismarck. If men are to be judged by results, then Bismarck stands first on the scroll of fame. The great ones of the earth had hitherto either carried their countries' glory with them to the grave, like Napoleon, or exhausted their states by the magnitude of their success like Louis XIV. But Bismarck having created a polity for his nation lived to see the fruits of his work, and stood aside while the seeds of a new policy were carelessly sown. Was ever such a record? To understand the true significance of the contrast in method we must turn back to 1850.

The most remarkable feature of international politics in the latter half of the 19th century was the rise of Prussia in the decade, 1860-1870. How far this was due almost entirely to the efforts of one man is, perhaps, best seen in the condition of Germany before Bismarck came into power.

In 1850 Austria dominated a German confederation, Prussia was treated not as an ally, but as a subordinate to be dictated to.* And it is obvious, from their attitude in 1866 and again in 1870, that the other European powers considered Prussia of little importance, and likely to collapse under the threats of France and Austria.

Briefly Bismarck had the following aims in view to restore Prussian prestige (it is to be noted that he started with national and not imperial ideas), to oust Austria from the leadership in Germany, and to cement national solidarity by a bold, and if necessary, aggressive policy. The means, which he had at his disposal, were, roughly, a Machiavellian grasp of diplomacy, the inherited spirit of Prussian Militarism, and the engine free to all empire builders--war—.

"He was" he said at one time "vaguely aware that he wanted war." Indirectly the attainment of his object meant the humiliation of Austria and France, leaving no rival on the continent.

His remarks in 1866 and then later in his life are so well-known that I must apologise for introducing them here:—

That a war with France would succeed with a war with Austria lay in the logic of history.

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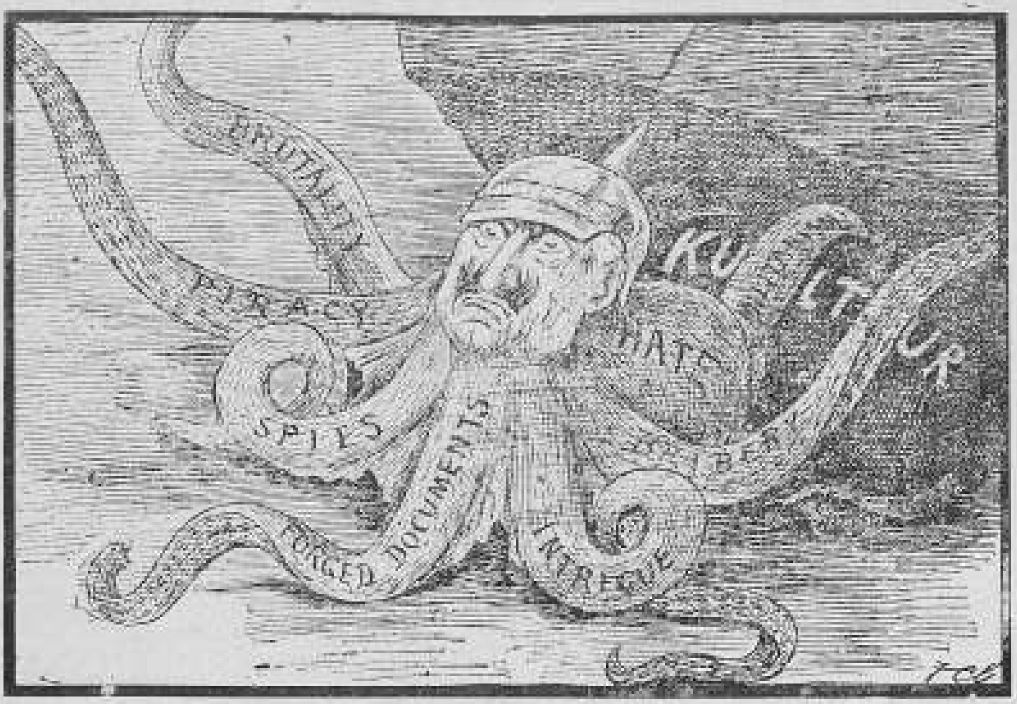
* "I am only sorry for my poor country."

"It will be a bad day for Europe when Russia produces a statesman who would not hesitate to sacrifice the loss of a million men."

"What it states is True" (said with reference to an article in the *Contemporary Review* which foretold the Kaiser's present megalomania and diplomacy.)

* Compare the treaty of Olmutz (November 1850.)

THE KAISER AND HIS TWO ELDEST GRANDSONS.



THE GERMAN OCTOPUS.

From "The Westminster Gazette."

I did not doubt that a Franco-German war must take place before the construction of a united Germany could take place.*

"Monarchy as understood in Germany" said Acton "is not as we understand it the condition under which a nation secures self-government: it is not government by law but government by authority."

But it has been a bye-law of German unity that it should be thoroughly Prussianised. Even to-day Prussia has a veto in the constitution by reason of her absolute majority in the Bundesrath.

Such were Bismarck's aims, such his reasons. It is of his diplomacy that we wish principally to speak. The history of Prussian militarism is too well-known to need detailing here. The characters of its founder and his successors are sufficient witness to its stability and permanence.

The great elector found a militia and left an army. He was the arch-priest of opportunism, autocracy and militarism. His son, "the Drill Sergeant" raised the troops from 38,000 to 80,000. To "Don't Care's" mad father Prussia owes more than history has cared to acknowledge. He did not, like his successors, attempt to share in the domain of the world politics, but in domestic policy he was "Prussia's greatest king." He practised rigid economy in a way which alone enabled Prussia to support an army out of all proportion to her size. His son earned for himself the title of Great by his courage and military genius. He nurtured the harvest which Roon, Moltke and Bismarck were to reap. Not even the onslaughts of Napoleon nor the incompetence of his successors were powerful to break the tradition, which still guides Germany to-day.

Fearless decisions were characteristic of Bismarck. He saw that only by the sword could the Austrian domination be overthrown, and did not shrink from the task before him. He knew that others would not dare to follow where he trod, so his first concern was to make himself and his master absolute in Prussia. This done, and liberalism defeated, Prussian foreign policy was his own. Abroad circumstances favoured Bismarck, but he made the best possible use of them. He befriended Russia during the Polish rising of 1863, and thus ensured her neutrality both in 1866 and 1870. France and Napoleon were successfully kept out of the way as the result of the famous interview at Biarritz in October 1865. In the following year Italy engaged to attack her life-long enemy Austria—If Prussia should declare war within three months (April 8, 1866). Thus skillfully did Bismarck prepare to strike at an isolated Austria. Italy had indeed recently offered to buy Venetia, but Austria had imprudently refused. She now hurriedly attempted to reopen negotiations but found that conciliation was too late. Bismarck's final stroke of diplomacy was to inveigle Austria into declaring war, thus pretending, in the eyes of Europe, that Austria was the aggressor. After Sadowa, Napoleon the Third disclosed a little of his real Bonapartist aims for France in demanding from Prussia the cession of the Rhenish Palatinate and the province of Hesse Darmstardt south of the Rhine. This Bismarck refused almost at the point of the sword,* and successfully brought the most recalcitrant member, Bavaria, into the union by revealing France's designs on her territory. The most remarkable feature of Bismarck's diplomacy is its foresight. The triple alliance was foreshadowed after 1866, by the cession of Venetia to Italy, and the extraordinary leniency shown to Austria.

He recognised the necessity for placating these two with a view to the isolation of France in the near future.

After the Austrian War the French were suddenly alive to their own danger, and their inglorious failure to dominate Europe once more, as they had hoped to do, after Prussia and Austria had been weakened by prolonged conflict. Austria was essential as an ally but "Austria would not move without Italy, would not move that is, with Italy hostile in its rear. France and Italy were divided by Rome."†

It should be remembered that in spite of Bismarck's recognition of the necessity for a war with France, it was France herself who from 1866 onwards attempted by military preparations, by intrigues and alliances to strike a blow at German unity before it was too late. The real situation was this, that when once Bismarck realised the intentions of Napoleon,‡ he determined to use his diplomacy in such a way that war would ensue, but as the result of French initiative.

The Hohenzollern candidature for the Spanish throne provided the necessary opportunity and in spite of Leopold's withdrawals and King William's conciliatory attitude, the War Party in France, the French and German Press, and Bismarck's

* Bismarck's reminiscences.

* Vide Bismarck's letter to Moltke at this juncture.

† Acton.

‡ Compare Napoleon's personal intrigues with the Austrian Emperor for a concerted attack on Prussia.

careful "doctoring" combined to open the war. Of Bismarck's deliberate intent to foment war, there can be little doubt. He despatched both agents and money to Spain, and wavered between deep depression and high spirits as the tide turned against or in favour of war. With war once declared Bismarck reaped the reward for his diplomacy of the last ten years. England was neutral; almost sympathetic; Russia proved an active friend by restraining Austria's support of France; and though Italy rejected the offer of Nice, Savoy and the Roman territory, she was forced into neutrality by the fanaticism of the French Court.

The success of his policy lay in its concealment. England at any rate had little suspicion of the methods employed. But Bismarck had still one more arrow in his diplomatic quiver, a proved weapon. The unguarded utterances of Napoleon at Biarritz in 1865, and of the French ambassador in 1867, were published in the *Times* shortly after the French had declared war.

At Biarritz Napoleon would appear to have not only claimed the South Rhenish provinces as compensation for his neutrality, but hinted at his desire to annex Belgium. In the compact made between Bismarck and Benedetti in 1867 the cession of Belgium to France was specifically mentioned. The publication of these damning evidences of Bonapartist aims and intrigues secured for Bismarck a free hand and the isolation and the distrust of the enemy.

In this maze of international bargains and alliances, it is really Italy that appears in the best light. She refused to abandon Prussia for Austrian bribes in 1866, and again refused to abandon France for Prussian bribes in 1870.

It is evident that Napoleon badly mismanaged his opportunities in Southern Germany. On the very eve of war Bismarck betrayed the uncertain condition of the South by explaining "With the South or without the South, we are a match for them." Indeed the Bavarians had gone so far as to vote by a majority in the Committee of the Chamber that a strict neutrality should be maintained. The South reluctantly went over to the North. To sit on the fence was impossible, and Prussia was more compelling than France.

The culminating point of Bismarck's policy was seen at Versailles in January 1871. The German Empire was proclaimed. Even the King of Prussia did not grasp the significance of the day, and, but for his Chancellor, would have clung to the old title. The external appearance of Empire was essential for the safety of the south. Internally in the constitution Bismarck was as anxious as his Royal master to place the controlling power in the hands of Prussia. Of this achievement Holland Rose says "However censurable much of his conduct may be, his action in working up to, and finally consummating, German unity at the right psychological moment stands out as one of the greatest feats of statesmanship which history records," and "thus the work begun in 1866 was completed. The blood shed by north and south side by side on many a victorious field had made of Germany a united nation." It is hard to find another example of a deliberate, calculated, policy, adopted in pursuit of a definite aim, each step marked out in advance, each eventuality prepared for, and such a policy attaining its end. Yet it was not cold calculation, but red hot enthusiasm. The man of blood and iron, can at least be credited with superb patriotism.

But Bismarck did not fight singlehanded. His enemies fought on his side. Owing to the quixotic schemes of Napoleon III and the criminal folly of his advisers, France dug her own grave. The part of the supporter of the lost causes, or the benefactor of the depressed nationalities, may have suited a Castlereagh, a Canning, or a Palmerston, but it ill became Napoleon III when his country was on the eve of both internal and external disruption. No doubt the heir to the heritage of the Revolution and Bonapartism felt it his duty to do something to revive the tradition of French Championship.*

But his schemes were both ill-timed, immature and half-hearted. Unfortunately too they were not always devoid of self-interest.† Alas for the glories of Bonapartism.

"It was reserved for the Two Napoleons, uncle and nephew, to force those divided peoples to comradeship in arms."‡ Napoleon III strengthened Bismarck's hand by creating an atmosphere of distrust amongst the nations which might have been his allies. Thus he initiated a united Germany on his frontier, and raised the bogey of Prussian domination which haunts France to-day.

If you must fight, it is well to fight with the right on your side. Unfortunately Napoleon was not even able to do that. Partly owing to Bismarck's astute cunning, and partly to the vag-

* "He knew well that the instincts of France were military and domineering, so that he has resolved to gratify them." Q. V. L. (to Lord Cowley.)

† Belgium.

‡ Fisher.

aries of Napoleon, the French undoubtedly figured in the eyes of Europe as the aggressors in 1870.

How far Napoleon's schemes were distrusted in Europe can be seen from the following letter written by Palmerston to Queen Victoria in August 1861.

"........But they (Sweden) consider the French Nation essentially aggressive, and they think that the Emperor is obliged to humour neutral feeling and to follow, as far the difference in circumstance will allow, the policy of his uncle. They consider the principle of nationalities to be the deciding principle of the day, and accordingly Venetia ought to belong to Italy, Poland ought to be secured for Russia, and Finland ought to be restored to Sweden. Holstein should be purely German with its own Duke, Schleswig should be united to Denmark and when the proper time comes with Sweden and Norway."

Also from the Queen's reply:

"........His (the King of Sweden's) desire to acquire Denmark and Finland is not unnatural, and would not be very dangerous, but the important part of the matter is that the Emperor Napoleon has evidently tried to bribe him for his schemes by such expectations. After having established a large Kingdom (Italy) dependent upon him, and possessing a fleet in the south of Europe on the right flank, he evidently tries to establish by the same means a similar power on his left flank in the north. If then the Revolutions of Poland and Hungary take Germany in the rear, he will be eventually in the all powerful position which his uncle held, and at which he himself aims, with that one difference that unlike his uncle, who had to fight England all the time (who defended desperately her interests in Europe) he tries to effect his purpose in alliance with England, and thus for this end uses our own free press, and in our own free country."*

Can any defence be made for the French War Party? The difficulty of the French and German relations was, and is still to-day—that no natural boundary limits their sphere of influence where they meet. Each wanted and wants a sure protection against a sudden attack from her neighbour. This Bismarck secured to some extent in 1870 in the fortresses of Metz and Strassburg, and the Alsatian territory. Had Napoleon been as astute a diplomatist as Bismarck, he would no doubt have succeeded in separating the lower provinces from Germany†—made the Rhine a bulwark between France and Germany, and solved the problem for several generations.

The defence for France is then, that her Emperor and his advisers promoted war out of fear for the future. She realised though not with the same thoroughness as Bismarck that there must be war. If war must come the sooner the better. The longer postponed the stronger Prussia, and the more united Germany would become.

"The power that was already formidable would soon be overwhelming, and France would be at its mercy. So far as politics can be reduced to figures the thing was clear" said Acton. This is justified in the light of subsequent history. In the eyes of Europe in 1870 Napoleon was sure to be triumphant.

Prince Von Bulow is evidently prejudiced when he writes:—

"Nothing could show more clerly the marvellous way in which the mature wisdom of our old Emperor cooperated with the genius of Prince Bismarck than the fact that they effected the unification of Germany not only in the face of all the difficulties with which they were confronted at home, but also in spite of opposition avowed or secret, and of the displeasure of the whole of Europe." "The displeasure" was with France and not with Germany."*

It was unfortunate for France, that when Napoleon saw the danger ahead of him, he did not take the proper steps to strengthen his position, by alliances and the securing of the good feeling of Europe. He did indeed seek alliances (Both sides did—"Both parties laboured to bring about a war—the one after the conclusion of the alliances—the other before") but no alliance could rest secure which was at the mercy of the whims of Napoleon and the passionate prejudices of the Empress. If one were asked to state laconically the causes of the Franco-Prussian War, one might say "the Pope, the Poles and the Press."

* Queen Victoria's letters have proved of inestimable value to the student of diplomacy. Could anything be more expressive than the above? Compare also a letter from the King of the Belgians dated February 1859 and a letter to Lord John Russel dated July 1859. Q. V. L. Page 452 Vol. III.

† In 1868 the Grand Duke of Hesse offered his territory on the left bank to the Emperor.

* "He will now probably omit no occasion to cajole Austria as he has done to Russia, and turn her spirit of revenge upon Prussia and Germany—the Emperor's probable next victims.........Should he thus have rendered himself the master of the entire continent, the time may come for us either to obey or to fight him with terrible odds against us."

Letter of Queen Victoria to Lord John Russel, July 1857.

"With such an extraordinary man as Louis Napoleon, we can never be for one instant safe."

Queen Victoria to the King of the Belgians, February, 1852.

"Lowe did not care what happened to Germany; Lord Granville asked himself what would be the position of England with the French at †Berlin. Cardwell at the war office estimated that they would get there in about six weeks, All agreed that Germany had no chance, and that it would be doing them a service to get them out of the scrape." Lord Acton on the English Cabinet's attitude.

Napoleon, like James II, committed suicide over Rome. The good will of Italy was forfeited at the most critical moment by Napoleon's obstinate refusal to abandon his support of the "Roman territory." This Catholic prejudice was more the pursuation of the Empress Eugenie than of her Consort. Her partial responsibility for the drama of 1870 cannot be doubted *C'est ma guerre a moi* she is reported to have said to M. Parien.

"The Empress was at least under no delusion. She saw that the dynasty depended on prestige, and that its prestige required to be refreshed: and whether or no it be true that Bismarck determined to force on a war with France in the summer of 1870, she and her party were eager for the fray. They believed that a war would save the dynasty, and that a war alone could save it and perhaps some justification is afforded for this opinion by the fact that when the news of Sedan was telegraphed to Paris the Empire fell suddenly, without noise, without a hand to help it, or a voice raised in its defence."*

Unhappily it must be said that Napoleon's own character was the chief factor in the downfall of his Empire.† "He was a man of half resolve, of small extravagancies and petty intrigues."‡

The people themselves were in a secondary way responsible, as they had been with Bonaparte, and in that they required "two things, glory abroad, and the satisfaction of their national vanity."

If Rome ruined the Italian alliance, Poland annulled the Austrian alliance. Friendship or at least a good understanding with Russia was perhaps the most important and most constant of all Bismarck's diplomatic arrangements. He earned Russia's gratitude during the Polish risings, and again at the time of the Crimean War. In 1870 Russia did not forget the part that Napoleon III had played in these two occurrences. The Tsar made it clear to the Austrian Government, that, though he was outwardly neutral, he was prepared to invade Hungary if Austria joined France. Thus was Prussian diplomacy rewarded in 1870. Undoubtedly Napoleon sacrificed his empire on the altar of Polish nationality.§

As for the press "the story of the Franco-German dispute is one of National jealousy fanned for four years by newspaper editors and popular speakers until a spark sufficed to set Western Europe ablaze."* The publication of the Ems telegram gave the final opportunity for the press of both countries to indulge in an orgy of patriotism and vituperation. The people and Press in France and Germany had decided, before their Governments had done so, that there were just grounds for war. You cannot talk of war for ever without evoking the actuality.

The German aims are no less clear to-day. World power, colonial empire and European domination. "If necessary they must be obtained as the result of a successful European war."†

The present Kaiser and his Chancellor have faithfully, as they thought, adhered to Prussian traditions. *Les moeurs Politiques* demanded a war with England. The pilot had been dropped, but the course not alteted. Empire welded by blood and iron. Germany was once more to cement her hetrogenious nationality by the policy of Bismarck. Unfortunately for her, the subtle hand of the pilot removed, "full steamed ahead" has plunged her into that very sea of troubles which Bismarck so skillfully avoided.

We have for the purposes of the present discussion, no quarrel with Germany's intentions to make war. If her Bernhardis and her Treitschkes think that a deliberately planned war is still a legitimate weapon in National and Imperial development, their theories are probably based on solid necessity.

Treitschke may have been inspired by hate, but Bernhardi is too candid a reviewer to earn our reproaches. Morally we may detest German diplomacy, historically we can, but despise it because it has not even the merit of success. Most thinking persons are willing to admit that Germany is entitled to a future, that being last in the field, is not a sufficient justification for the stultifying and cramping of a powerful nation; but few will agree that her methods of August 1914, represented the only way out of the difficulty. It is conceivable that she might have attained her object by peaceful methods, but if, indeed, war were the only solution then she has missed her opportunity for a century—"World power or downfall." "A nation" says Bernhardi "of 65,000,000 which stakes all her forces on winning herself a position, and in keeping that position, cannot be conquered. But it is an evil day for her if she relies on the semblance of power, or, miscalculating her enemies' strength, is content with half measures................"‡

* H. L. Fisher.

† "He is a very extraordinary man, I might almost say mysterious." L. Q. V.

‡ Albert Thomas.

§ "It is a peculiarity of the French Nation that they place spiritual needs above material ones." Von Bulow.

† J. Holland Rose

‡ Bernhardi.

We are too close to the events of war to trust our judgment. But one thing would appear clear that the Kaiser misunderstood the part that England was going to play in the war. Was it likely, he must have argued, that England would either be in a position to or desire to enter the war. She had everything to lose and little to gain. Her hands were full in Ireland, in Africa and in India; her army was small and unreliable, her people apathetic or revolutionary, her Colonies and Empire loose knit; her Government peace-loving and servile. What could such a maze of Redmondites and Ulsterites, socialists and suffragettes little navy parties and constitutional crises mean, if it were not decadence? The England of Palmerston and Canning had passed away, of Byron and Nelson, of Wellington and Wolsey. Her Navy had left the Meditterranean, the virility of her foreign policy had waned. Her daughters clamoured for independence, her labour for recognition. No, certainly England would not fight, and if she did—only her navy would matter. If for the Kaiser, results were to be measured by effort, then he had good reason to look for support from inside the British Empire. German diplomacy intended to insure Civil Strife in Ireland, disaffection in Egypt; revolution in Africa, hostility in India and disloyalty in the Mahommedan world.

This done England would be effectually crippled. Her navy scattered and her limbs dissected, colonial unrest would prove an effectual bar to the massing of imperial troops and the transport of supplies.* Humanly speaking it is hardly possible to believe that Germany would have started the war unless she trusted in some of the above conceptions.

As for the neutrality of Belgium, she had no reason to suppose, except on the ground of weakness, that England would abandon the position she took up in 1870. German writers and diplomatists have been pleased to jeer at England's self-interested morality, but whatever the German menace may have meant to England, however much she may have foreseen the perils of isolation, it was the question of Belgium that decided the fate of Europe, and the abandonment of international morality which has sealed the fate of Germany.

As for Russia "Germany has alternately feared, befriended and despised the "barbarian" on her eastern frontier." In July, 1914, Russia appeared to her neighbour as paralysed by internal labour troubles, her resources still weakened by the Japanese War, and her autocracy shaking in it its foundations.*

In the event of a war with England Germany's military experts would certainly seem to have underestimated the strength and qualifications of the English army. † Sheer ignorance and folly do not satisfactorily account for Germany's actions. One is therefore forced to the rather uncertain conclusion that German diplomats relied on, or at least hoped for two essentials.—The neutrality of England and the active assistance of Italy. The following suppositions in German diplomacy may help to make this conclusion clear. Germany was fully aware that in spite of having spent 300 million on her navy, she could not hope to progress against the combined navies of England, France and Russia. If England were neutral and Italy an active ally she had every reason to believe that both the Baltic and the Mediterranean could easily be dominated. It would appear that the neutrality of Spain even was to be violated in order to secure a good naval base in the Mediterranean. ‡ The success of German designs on the

*"There is another danger which concerns England more closely and directly threatens her vitality. This is due to the national movement in India and Egypt, to the growing power of Islam, to the agitation for independence in the great colonies, as well as the supremacy of the pro-German element in South Africa." Bernhardi—"Germany and the next war."

*"The Russian ambassador is convinced that the German Government also desired war from the first." Sir M. De Bunsen to Sir Edward Grey.

"The evidence is overwhelming that both in Austria and Germany the firm belief prevailed up to the last that Russia would never go to war." The *Fortnightly*.

Russia it was said was unprepared and France was in no condition to go to war. Introduction to the "White paper."

"Russia had said that she desired nothing but a period of peace to allow for her internal development." *Ibid*.

† For a war in continental Europe, we have only to take into account the regular army stationed in England..... The army of the parts of the empire administered by the English Cabinet, divides into the Regular army, the Native troops, and the Territorial army, a militia made up of Volunteers which has not reached the intended total of 300,000. Its military value cannot at present be ranked very high. For a continental European war it may be left out of account......... England can employ her regular army in a continental war so long only as all is quiet in the colonies. This fact brings into prominence how important it will be should war break out to threaten England in her Colonial dominions, especially Egypt." Bernhardi.

‡ Vide Nauticus in the December *Fortnightly*. "Majorca was to be treated after the fashion, not perhaps of Belgium, but of Luxemburg."

Mediterranean depended absolutely either on the neutrality of Britain or the co-operation of the Italian Navy, or on both. These assumptions do not exclude Germany's further schemes in Egypt and Turkey. In the event of English hostility Germany could still rely upon the assistance of Roumania, Italy, Turkey and possibly Bulgaria. While Egypt, Africa, Ireland and India were to be sufficiently fomented to threaten England's Empire and tie her hands. Undoubtedly a section of Germany believed that England would not sacrifice her material interests for the sake of a scrap of paper, and that the nation of shop-keepers had proved itself incapable of maintaining an empire.*

Cramb expressed the German view as follows. "England's supremacy is an unreality, her political power is as hollow as her moral virtues. She cannot long retain that baseless supremacy. Her decline is certain, there may be no war."

With all her minute preparations Germany underestimated the part that the small nationalities were to play in this war. Belgium and Servia alone have been sufficient to upset the Kaiser's plans. Germany's misconceptions were amazing. "The truth is" says Dr. Dillion "the Berlin authorities were too well supplied with details whilst lacking a safe criterion by which to measure their worth." We are far from wishing to belittle Germany's strength, but it cannot be doubted that a number of the Kaiser's advisers were ignorant, wilfully or otherwise, of the true state of affairs in England and her Colonies, and the attitude of the English Government helped to keep them in ignorance. We can hardly help congratulating ourselves that there is no longer a Bismarck at the head of affairs in Germany. No doubt, had there been, the policy of isolation and destruction would have been ruthlessly pursued. In 1870 Germany's natural enemies remained neutral; in 1914 even her allies do not support her. Her cause is then neither just nor her diplomacy good. Bismarck was terrified at the action of his new master because he foresaw that a time would come when it would no longer be possible for Germany to separate either Russia and France or France and England. A medieval Kaiser frightening Europe is not the best fountainhead for the subtlities of diplomacy. To quote Bismarck once more "Some of the French who threatened us five years ago (1886) are aleady dead, and in all probability hardly any of them will be alive at the time when France may see her chance of attacking us. But I will go still further and maintain that if Germany retains only semi-capable statesmen France will never have such an opportunity." Assuredly Bismarck did not contemplate France being able to attack Germany with Russia, England, Japan, Belgium and Servia as her allies.

As for Turkey he said "I rejoice to see that we are not disposed to give up this reserve, and are resisting the temptation to force our way into the ranks of those powers who are immediately interested in the Turkish question."

In one way at least the Emperor and Dr. Von Bethmann Hollweg have forsaken the tradition of Bismarck, and in doing so have seriously jeopardised their cause. "Success" Bismarck said "essentially depends upon the impression which the origination of the war makes upon us and others. It is important that we should be the party attacked." It is interesting to compare this with Frederick the Great's remark, which Bernhardi makes use of, "He is a fool, and that nation is a fool, who having the power to strike his enemy unawares does not strike, and strike his deadliest."*

Von Bulow forgets that Bismarck was not as really a disciple in the same school as Treitschke and Bernhardi. "Even victorious wars" he said "can only be justified when they are forced upon a nation." But how, it may be asked does 1870 stand the test of this maxim? The question is answered by professor Cramb.

"The war of 1870 with France was a war of great revenge, of just revenge, and for one of the greatest causes. No war in history perhaps was ever more just than the war which Bismarck and Moltke waged against France." Germany's failure is then attributed as much to the abandonment of Bismarckian ideals as to her purblind diplomacy.

"There is no better nation than the Germans, so long as they are rightly guided." Therein lies the secret of Bismarck's success and the Kaiser's failure. Germans of to day hail Bismarck as the founder of Modern Germany—but not in the sense that the prince himself would have approved of. Von Bulow overlooks Bismarck's own

* That England would pay much attention to the neutrality of weaker neighbours when such a stake was at issue is hardly credible.—Bernhardi.

"Does any one believe that England would have interfered to protect Belgian freedom against France?"—The German Chancellor.

* Letter to Voltaire.

utterances and ingeniusly attributes Germany's present policy to him in the following manner.

"We must never forget that without the gigantic achievement of Prince Bismarck this new era would never have dawned. Even if in the course of our new international policy we depart from the European policy of the first Chancellor, yet it still remains true that the international tasks of the twentieth century are, properly speaking, the continuation of the work he completed in the field of the continental policy."

Thus "though it is certain that Bismarck did not foresee the course of this new development of Germany," he had brought Prussia to such a pitch of prosperity and power, that European and world-domination lay on the horizon of her future. Though Von Bulow is an able critic of French History he would appear, in common with most of Official Germany, to have adopted too confident a view of the methods of modern German diplomacy. "European history" he says "has seldom, if ever, seen an alliance of such strength and durability as the triple alliance" even Bismarck with all his belief in the incompatibility of Tsar and Republic would not have subscribed to such an opinion. He knew too well the delicacy of Austro-Italian relations.*

His views on the new colonial policy may be gathered from the following. "I am not anxious to know how people who have shaken the dust of the Fatherland off their feet are getting on," again "As minister I lacked every inclination for a policy of colonial conquest on the French pattern."

He was no happier over Gemany's new European policy. "Other faults" he said "have been committed which cause me anxiety, and they seem to have something in view which would mean a break away from my long and laboriously mantained policy."

At another time he said "My criticism is solely directed against the wrong political methods which my successor and his colleagues have adopted, for they fill me with anxiety for the Empire."

Again. "It is not a personal grudge, nor revenge, nor even a wish to regain power, but the anxiety, the heavy anxiety which robs me of many a nights' rest, about the future of the Empire founded with such costly and heavy sacrifice."

His remarks were pregnant with future significance.

It is not for one moment suggested that Caprivi, Hohenlohe-schillings First, Von Bulow and Bethman-Hollweg have had the same opportunities as Bismarck or even the same problems and situations to deal with. But it is hardly possible to believe in view of the combination against her, that Germany could not have played her cards better. There have not been wanting international complications such as Fashoda, Tunis, Morocco, Tripoli, Panjdeh, The dogger Bank, The Jameson Raid, Bosnia and Herzegovina which she could have turned to good account. German policy after Bismarck has differed from that of his day, in that it has made no secret of its intentions. Such bold assertions of policy and aims, as have characterised Germany of late, cannot be expected to produce successful alliances or fruitful diplomacy, but with all her marvellous enegry, her huge military machine, her unbounded confidence not even Germany can win World power unaided.

* Referring to the Turkish crisis he said "What attitude Austria and Italy would maintain towards one another? I cannot calculate that beforehand, it depends on future eventualities."

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EGYPT AND HER FOREIGN RELATIONS

BY PROF. E. W. GREEN.

IN their descriptions and histories of Egypt many writers have referred to its isolation and remoteness. Gibbon called it an impervious country. They have seen it as a country cut off from easy communications with its neighbours by a vicious circle of desert—the Libyan on the west, the Nubian to the south, the Arabian on the east, while to the north, separating Egypt from Asia there lies the desert of Tih, over which the Israelites wandered, and along the coast, "betwixt Damiata and Mount Casius old," the proverbial Serbonian bog, "where armies whole have sunk." On the map then the position of Egypt suggests isolation.

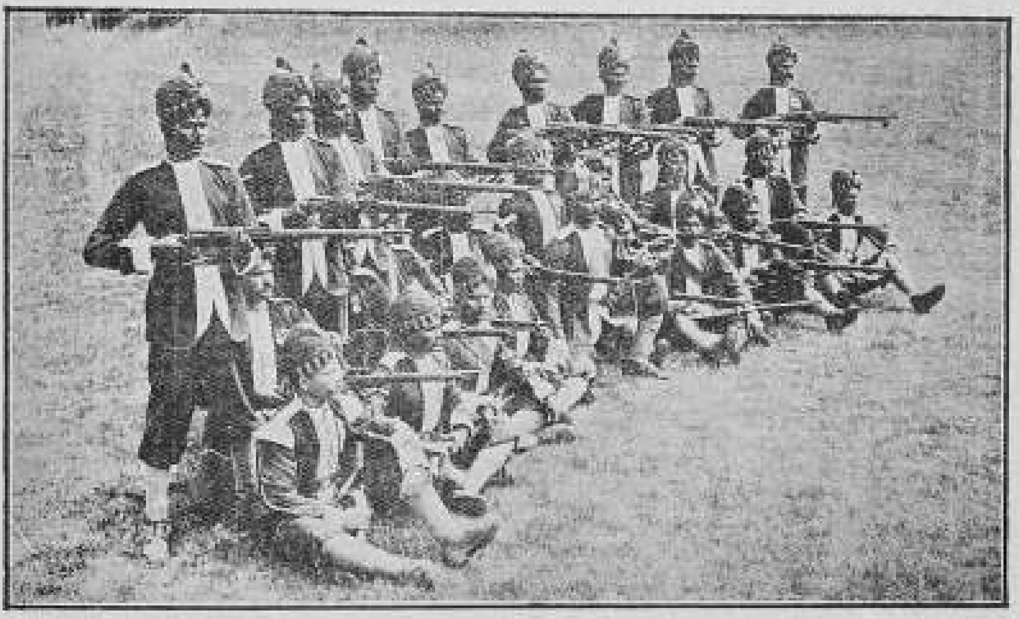
Her history, however, shows the view to be mistaken. As far back as the Fourth Dynasty, which reigned about four thousand years before the christian era, Egypt had embarked on a policy of expansion into Asia, and from that time there are very few periods in her history when she has not been in active contact with countries beyond her border or under the influence of their authority. There are long periods in which Egypt was established in the neighbouring countries of Syria, Arabia and Nubia; there are longer periods when she submitted to the control of foreign powers—Hebrews, Assyrians and Persians; Greeks and Romans; Arabs and Turks; and finally the English. The intervals of political isolation are comparatively rare and were generally periods of decline from which she was drawn by foreign influence.

Foreign influence has almost always penetrated Egypt from Asia, and Egyptian expansion has invariably been directed towards Asia. Her history, indeed, is Asiatic rather than African. Her northern frontier was established by King Snoferu about 4000 B.C., along a line running from the head of the Gulf of Akaba to a point on the coast of Syria. That is to say, Egypt at an early date absorbed the peninsula of Sinai. Very much the same line from Akaba to El Arish now constitutes the frontier between Egypt and Turkey. To the north of the frontier lies Syria and it is through Syria that almost every invader of Egypt has come. Not only did the Asiatic conquerors enter by this route, but the Greeks and Romans as well. Alexander marched on Egypt after he had won the battle of the Issus in northern Syria, and when the Roman Senate resolved on the Roman occupation, the Governor of Syria was entrusted with the task.

The history of Egyptian expansion, too, emphasises the above political connection of Egypt and Syria. In the age of the Pharaohs, Syria and the country as far as the Euphrates were held by Egypt for centuries. In the period of the kings of Israel and Judah, Syria was the prize for which Egypt and Assyria struggled. History repeated itself in the time of the Ptolemies after Alexander's empire had been divided by his generals, and the Asiatic and the Egyptian divisions competed for the possession of Syria. In later ages there is the struggle between Saladin and the Crusaders. Napoleon again after he had occupied Egypt proceeded to the annexation of Syria, and when Mehemet Ali established himself in Egypt at the beginning of the nineteenth century he attempted to penetrate through Syria to Asia Minor. Thus the history of Egypt is inextricably bound up with the history of South-western Asia.

Two other countries should be noted in connection with a review of Egypt's foreign relations—Arabia and Nubia. Both of these countries were objects of Egyptian ambitions from the age of the Pyramids to the reign of Mehemet Ali; and the same objects are still reflected in the policy of the present Government of Egypt. Punt, the ancient name for Arabia, and Nubia formed part of the Egyptian Empire in the so-called Old and New Kingdoms of the ancient dynasties. All the powerful rulers of Egypt sought to add them to their empires, while the British conquest of the Sudan and England's relations with the Arabs from Koweir to Yemen illustrate the continuity of political conditions. From these countries, too, Egypt has been frequently attacked and on occasions conquered. She was ruled by Ethiopian Kings from 750 to 650 B.C., and was conquered by the Arabs in 640 A.D.

A survey of Egyptian history thus seems to show a contradiction between the country's geography and its history. It is shut off by deserts, yet it has always been in close communication with other people; it is African, but its history is rarely concerned with Africa. It is near and remote; Asiatic and African. But the contradiction



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THE EX-KHEDIVE OF EGYPT.—
ADHERED TO THE KING'S ENEMIES.

is only apparent; in fact, the history of Egypt is determined by her geography as closely as is the history of any other country by its situation. Egyptian history is in complete harmony with her geography.

The situation of Egypt in the south-east corner of the Mediterranean places her on the line of country which connects Europe and Asia. The line may be taken as extending from Constantinople to Cairo—from the Black Sea to the Red Sea. The countries on the line are Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Syria and Egypt—Arabia also may be included in the system. From the dawn of history the avenues of communication between East and West have lain in these countries. Before the sea-route to the East was opened, the products of the East were brought by caravans through Persia to the Euphrates and thence to the ports of the Black Sea and the Eastern Mediterranean. From the earliest age of history the gems, spices and manufactures of the East have been exchanged at these ports for the metals of the West. The countries through which these trade-routes passed early amassed wealth, and competing kingdoms appeared which sought to draw to themselves the bulk of the transit trade. It is obvious that if one country was able to develop sufficient power to bring all these trade-routes under its control, it would destroy competition and establish a monopoly which would give its inhabitants command of the wealth of the East. And so we find in the ancient and modern world successive attempts to consolidate this area into a single political system. Thus, in the ancient world, grew up the mighty empires of Ur, Babylon, Nineveh and Tyre; of Persia, Greece and Rome. It was the object alike of Nebuchadnezzar, Cyrus, Alexander and Augustus to command the countries which lay between the Euphrates and the Mediterranean. This is the system which Venice sought to control in Mediæval Europe and which the Turks eventually mastered and held for centuries. In this economic system, modified by the cutting of the Suez Canal, is to be found one of the fundamental causes of rivalry in Europe at the present moment.

Egypt's relation to the economic system of the Eastern Mediterranean can be traced through three stages. In the earliest age of her history she was herself the terminus of the eastern trade-routes. She produced the metals that the East wanted. By the conquest of the peninsula of Sinai about 4000 B.C., she obtained possession of the rich copper mines of Maghara and became the largest purchaser of eastern produce. The period of the opening of the copper mines was the age when the Pyramids were built, of which it has been said that their simplicity, vastness, perfection and beauty place them on a different level from all works of art and man's devices in later ages. Again the conquest of Nubia, five hundred years later, gave Egypt the control of rich gold mines, which in the last dynasties gave the Pharaohs an enormous annual yield of bullion.

The second stage in the development of Egypt's economic relations set in when the Asiatic trade-routes stretched out beyond the mainland to Cyprus, Greece and the Western Mediterranean. Competition then set in between the Euphrates and the Nile-routes. The position was as follows: Eastern goods either made their way by caravan transport across Persia and Asia-Minor to the Black Sea and the Ægean, or they were collected at the head of the Persian Gulf and then taken either up the Euphrates to the middle of its course and so to the Syrian ports, or by the Arabian route to the Red Sea, where they were transported to the Nile and floated down to the Mediterranean. To stimulate the Arabian trade canals were dug from the Red Sea to the Nile and about 610 B.C., one was begun to connect the Nile with the Arabian Gulf through the Bitter Lakes. With these conditions keen economic rivalry, leading to war, set in between Egypt and the Power established on the Euphrates. This period may be taken as extending from the thirteenth dynasty, about 1900 B.C., to the beginning of the Christian era. In this period various powers built up empires which embraced the whole system. Such was the dominion of the Persians, of Alexander the Great and of the Romans, all of whom necessarily included Egypt in their imperial schemes. At other times the Kingdoms of the Nile and the Euphrates struggled for the possession of Syria which was the bridge connecting the two rivers. Its possession would enable Egypt to reach the Euphrates, or the Mesopotamian power to advance to the Nile. The best examples of the rivalry are to be found in the wars between Egypt and Assyria in the reigns of the kings of Israel and Judah, and those between the Saleucids and the Ptolemies after the break-up of Alexander's Empire.

A third stage in Egypt's economic relations set in with the opening up of the direct route to India by sea, in the period of the Roman occupation. As the result of Augustus' victory over Antony and Cleopatra at Actium all the Eastern Provinces of the Roman Empire, stretching to the Euphrates and including the Nile, passed

again under the control of a single ruler. In the Roman imperial system which Augustus created, Egypt was distinguished from the other provinces by being made the private property of the Roman Emperors. From the days of Augustus, therefore, Egypt received marked attention. All its resources were developed, and special arrangements were made for making Egypt the great emporium of Eastern and Western trade. As much of the Eastern trade as possible was diverted to the Nile. The trade which had followed the land-routes across Arabia to Petra and Gaza and the Syrian ports was turned away to Egypt, partly as the result of the increased cheapness and security of the water-route, partly by the protective measures of Augustus. The policy of Augustus can be traced very clearly by studying his dealings with the Arabs, who in the declining period of the Ptolemies had obtained control of the sea-route to the Nile in addition to their land-routes to Petra and Gaza and the Syrian coast. He sent a military expedition to the West coast of Arabia to get control of the Petra trade-route, but it failed. Later a naval expedition was prepared which destroyed Adane, the modern Aden, which was the great Arabian entrepart for trade between India, Persia, Africa and Egypt. Its destruction destroyed Arabian competition and gave Egypt and Rome the direct interest in the Eastern trade. Further, communications were improved; at sea by the suppression of piracy; inland, by improving the roads which led from the Egyptian ports on the Red Sea to the Nile. A protective system was also imposed in favour of Egypt. There is good reason to believe that by Navigation Acts, Eastern trade was confined to Roman and Egyptian ships, and that differential duties were imposed to divert traffic from the land-routes to the sea and the Nile. In the time of Augustus trade largely deserted the route to Petra and the Syrian ports in favour of the Red Sea and the Nile—and Egypt profited.

This stage in Egyptian development was completed in the time of Nero when the Egyptian sailor, Hippalus, sailed direct to the Indian ports instead of coasting round the Arabian Peninsula. Shortly afterwards a ship from Egypt sailed to the Malabar coast and rounded Cape Comorin. The extent to which Egypt gained by these measures, even in the reign of Augustus, can be gathered from the fact that in one year 120 ships sailed from the port of Myos Hormos to India, while in the period of the Ptolemies only twenty ships a year ventured into the Arabian Gulf.

This period of successful competition with the Euphrates system continued to the declining years of the Roman Empire and its descendant, the Byzantine Empire. The history of the latter empire illustrates again the reaction of the Euphrates upon the Nile. The Euphrates frontier was attacked by the Persians and the consequent confusion and insecurity drove trade from the caravan-routes to the safer maritime-routes, by which Egypt again profited. Again when for a time the Persians under Chosroes broke through the Roman defence on the Euphrates and pushed through to Syria in 612, Egypt also fell, but was regained with the great victory of the Emperor Heraclius at Nineveh. A few years later, however, the Saracens established themselves in Mesopotamia and Egypt became part of the Mahomedan Empire which consolidated again the Euphrates and the Nile systems, with its centre at Bagdad.

The history of Egypt's foreign relations after the Saracen conquest can be grouped round three important events, each of which is concerned with her situation on the sea-route connecting the East and the West. The events are the introduction of the magnet for navigation; the voyage of Vasco de Gama opening up direct sea-communication between Europe and the East; the construction of the Suez Canal.

It is supposed that the mariner's compass was known to the Chinese in the third century A.D., but it was not used by the Arabs till the Caliphate of the famous Haroun-al-Raschid, at the end of the eighth century. By the tenth century the Caliphate of Bagdad had sunk into decay. At the same time Egypt rose to the height of her splendour. Cairo was founded in 969, and the elegance and grandeur of her gates and mosques, and the establishment of the famous University of Gama-el-Azhan made her the foremost city of the age. The fabulous prosperity of Egypt at this time has been traced to the possession of the monopoly of the trade with the East. The introduction of the mariner's compass had made the sea-route quicker and safer and therefore cheaper. Consequently trade deserted the high-ways of Asia and the Empire of Bagdad sank into decline. Egypt's relations in this period extended eastwards to China, India, and the Spice Islands and westwards to Central Europe. Her commercial relations in the West connected her with the merchants of Italy and Germany, trade passing from the Nile to Venice on the Adriatic, though Genova and Marseilles had a less considerable share. For a time Egypt stood at the cross-roads

of the world; all traffic between East and West passed through her ports.

Apart from the imperial position of Egypt from the tenth to the sixteenth century, three points of interest arise. In the first place the Egyptian empire was formed by separation from the Caliphate of Bagdad. A separate Caliphate of the Fatimites (the descendants of Mahomed through his daughter, Fatima) was established at Cairo. Secondly, the empire, as if obedient to some law of expansion, included again Syria, Nubia and Arabia. In the time of Saladin Egyptian arms were carried again to the Euphrates. In the third place the relations between Egypt and Europe are interesting. The countries of Europe hurled themselves on the countries of the Eastern Mediterranean in the Crusades. Whether we look at the Crusades in their religious or in their economic aspect, the movement came from Italy. The crusaders were summoned by the Vatican and served the interests of Venice. Constantinople was sacked by the Crusaders under the leadership of the Doge, Dandolo, blind and ninety-three, and Egypt was unsuccessfully invaded, but Venice built up a commercial empire in the East of the Mediterranean and drew the wealth of the East to the Adriatic. This trade was the basis of the prosperity and vigour of the Italian and German cities in the middle ages.

This situation continued till the beginning of the sixteenth century. Then the fortunes of Egypt underwent another change. In the fourteenth century another power had established itself on the Euphrates—the Ottoman Turks. They founded an empire which extended from the Persian Gulf to the Adriatic Sea, and in 1453 Constantinople was stormed and became the capital of the Turkish Empire. In 1517 Egypt was conquered and the Egyptian Caliphate was transferred to the Sultan at Constantinople, though he was not a member of the Khoreish, the tribe of Mahomed. But economic decline in Egypt had preceded political decay. In 1499 Vasco da Gama returned from Calicut. In 1509 the Portuguese defeated the Egyptian fleet in the Arabian Sea, occupied Socotra and closed the Red Sea to Eastern trade. The result was that trade deserted the old routes, and Egypt, Italy and Germany were ruined. They remained dormant until the construction of the Suez Canal restored the old conditions.

But though Egypt remained lethargic under Turkish rule, the importance of her position was never entirely obscured. It was always felt that it afforded a post at which the Eastern trade might still be commanded. As Augustus had brought Rome into direct communication with the East by the destruction of the Arabian marine and the occupation of Aden, some modern Romans might re-open the gate by the acquisition of Egypt and the Red Sea and by the destruction from that base of political and commercial rivals. Thus in the 17th century, when the Dutch had succeeded the Portuguese as the chief commercial power in the East, the philosopher Liebnitz suggested to Louis XIV that he should destroy his Dutch rivals by the occupation of Egypt but Louis neglected the advice. Again, when the English displaced the Dutch, Napoleon hoped to destroy England in Egypt. His plan was to establish himself on the Euphrates-Nile system—a plan which would entail the destruction of the Turkish Empire—and then use his position on the Red Sea and Persian Gulf to attack the English in the East. After the occupation of Egypt he moved on Syria, but was checked at Acre by English sea-power. After the Napoleonic Wars Eastern trade expanded and Egypt was again stirred into activity. In 1832 the Governor of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, revolted from Turkey and in the customary manner overran Syria, established himself on the Euphrates and annexed Arabia in very much the same way as the Fatimite Caliphs had set up an independent Egypt by a successful revolt from the Abassid Caliphate of Bagdad. In this venture, Egypt had the support of France, but England and Russia intervened to prevent the establishment of a new empire in Asia-Minor, and Mehemet Ali was ultimately forced to yield his conquests and content himself with the gift of the hereditary possession of Egypt under the suzerainty of the Sultan.

It is clear then that before the cutting of the Suez Canal the Eastern Mediterranean was being stirred into activity. It was again becoming an important centre of political energy. Schemes were again on foot to re-open the roads which had been closed for three centuries. The line of the present Canal had been surveyed by the British Government in 1830, but construction was vetoed for political and financial reasons. Overland transport, however, was established and later a railway between Alexandria and Suez to provide rapid communication for Eastern mails and passengers, and a certain amount of trade was diverted. In 1854 the project of cutting through the isthmus was proposed again by the French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps, a concession was obtained from the Egyptian Government and in 1869 the work was completed. About the

same time, the Australian and New Zealand gold discoveries emphasised the demand for shorter communications with the East, while the change from sailing ships to steamers as the result of the application of the compound engine to steam ships made the Suez Canal the main line of communication between Europe and the East. Egypt was again the cynosure of every political eye.

With the construction of the Canal the situation in the Eastern Mediterranean developed rapidly. Between 1854 and 1870, the period between the grant of the concession and the completion of the Canal, Europe witnessed the Crimean War, the Italian struggle against Austria, the Austro-Prussian War and the Franco-German War. That is to say Italy and Germany consolidated their power. Just as they had declined with the closing of the Egyptian trade-route in the sixteenth century, they revived with its reopening in the nineteenth century. The stimulus was felt too in the Balkans and in Russia. All the countries of Central and South Eastern Europe gravitated to the Eastern Mediterranean. All sought to share in the rich commerce which was benefiting the maritime powers of England and France. The Triple Alliance was formed by Germany, Austria and Italy, one of whose objects was the control of the Nile-Euphrates system. Trieste, Salonica, Constantinople, and then Asia-Minor, Syria and Egypt were the goals of their political ambition. Thus we find at the present moment German influence established in Constantinople and Asia-Minor; and Italy on the Western frontier of Egypt. More recently was created the Balkan League and then occurred the attack on Salonica, Constantinople, and the Ægean Isles which command the coast of Asia-Minor. In fact politically and economically the Crusading period had returned. The series of wars which began in 1854 began with a dispute for the possession of the Holy Places. There was too a decadent Power at Constantinople, a reconstituted Egypt and the *internecine* rivalries of European powers for supremacy in the Eastern Mediterranean.

The situation was reflected in the European intervention in Egypt. Ismail was Ruler of Egypt, but he was no Saladin. His extravagance and misgovernment brought the country to the verge of bankruptcy. Between 1863 and 1876 the public debt had increased from £ 3,000,000 to £ 89,000,000 and almost all this vast sum had been misappropriated by Ismail and his officials instead of being spent upon productive works. Consequently the interest had to be paid by additional taxation which increased by 50 per cent. The alternative lay between repudiation and the intervention of the creditors. A method of intervention was afforded by the capitulations, that is, treaty concessions obtained by Christian powers from the Turkish Empire, conferring immunity from taxation and freedom from the jurisdiction of the local Courts. Thus a complaint of a European creditor in respect of the failure of the Egyptian Government to meet its financial obligations would be decided in a court which derived its jurisdiction from the great powers, who had also the power to enforce their treaty rights. Hence the fourteen European powers made joint representations and the administration practically passed into their hands. Two institutions were established. The Mixed Tribunals which decided all civil cases between Europeans and Egyptians and an international Board, the *Caisse de la , dette* to administer the revenues assigned for the payment of the debt. This was the situation in 1876. Since that period the march of events has again brought Egypt under the protection of the power whose interests are paramount in the East, at this time, England. But the European Concert and Turkish suzerainty have gone, and England is the only Power that is now concerned with the administration and defence of Egypt.

In 1878 the complete incompetency of Ismail's government led to his deposition by the European Powers and the establishment under his successor, Tewfik, of the dual administrative control of England and France. That position lasted till 1882. Then followed the British occupation. The Egyptian revolt under the Minister of War, Arabi, an anti-Turkish movement which developed into an anti-European rising, stirred up all the disorderly elements in the country, and when England failed to obtain the support of Europe or of Turkey, for joint intervention, she intervened alone and with the battle of Tel-el-Kebir the British occupation commenced. From 1882-1904 the administration was mainly Anglo-Egyptian, but France still exerted a powerful and obstructive influence in the Mixed Tribunals and *Caisse de la dette.* In 1904, however, an agreement was made by which France undertook to withdraw from Egypt in return for British support of her Moroccan policy. This arrangement remained good for ten years—to the end of 1914. Then in consequence of the Khedive's intrigues with the powers with whom England was at war, he was deposed. At the same time, as Turkey had thrown in her lot

with Germany, the Anglo- Egyptian Government renounced the suzerainty of Turkey and England established in its place a British Protectorate. With the separation from Turkey the Capitulations were abolished, and the Anglo-Egyptian Government has obtained a free hand to develop Egyptian resources and her administration without impediment from Turkey or Europe, while Egypt herself has again come under the direct control of the Power whose interests most necessitate the maintenance of secure communications with the East.

In this situation the interests of England and Egypt are identical. In particular both are bound to look with concern on any attempt to establish a new empire embracing again the Nile-Euphrates system. The power which is making the attempt at the present moment is Germany. Her policy is revealed in her relations with Turkey and her construction of the Bagdad and Hedjaz railways. The Bagdad railway is intended to establish German influence on the Euphrates and the Persian Gulf. The Hedjaz railway runs through Syria from Beyrout to Damascus and then southwards through Jerusalem along the Eastern shore of the Dead Sea to Arabia. From the Dead Sea another line is under construction leading to El Arish on the Egyptian frontier with the Suez Canal and Egypt as its objective. It is thus quite clear that another attempt is being made to consolidate all the country which lies between the Euphrates and the Nile. In obedience to the law which seems to determine Egypt's relations, she is bound to oppose such a design or she must submit. The law is equally binding on the Power which has brought Egypt under her protection, and for this reason British expeditions have been despatched to the Euphrates and the Nile (or to the Suez Canal as the modern counterpart of the Nile). Egypt's foreign relations in fact have undergone no change in principle between the age of Cheops and the twentieth century. The principle is as enduring as the Pyramids.

THE NEW ERA IN EGYPT

EGYPT UNDER BRITISH PROTECTORATE.

The Press Bureau made the following announcement on December 17th 1914 :—

His Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs gives notice that, in view of the state of war arising out of the action of Turkey, Egypt is placed under the protection of his Majesty and will henceforth constitute a British Protectorate.

The suzerainty of Turkey over Egypt is thus terminated and his Majesty's Government will adopt all measures necessary for the defence of Egypt and the protection of its inhabitants and interests.

The King has been pleased to approve the appointment of Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Arthur Henry McMahon, G.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., C.S.I., to be his Majesty's High Commissioner for Egypt.

THE NEW CABINET.

The new Cabinet (Dec. 21) is constituted as follows :—

Premier and Minister of the Interior—Rushdy Pasha.

Minister of Public Works, War and Marine—Sirry Pasha.

Minister of Instruction—Ahmed Hilmy Pasha.

Minister of Justice—Samat Pasha.

Minister of Wakf—Ishmail Sidhy Pasha.

SIR REGINALD WINGATE.

The command of the Egyptian army is vested in Lieut.-General Sir Reginald Wingate, with the title of Sirdar and Governor-General of the Sudan. He saw service with the several Sudan and Nile Expeditions and was for many years the right-hand man and Chief Intelligence Officer to Lord Kitchener. His thorough knowledge of Arabic and of desert custom proved invaluable to the Army in its advance. He fought the remnant of the Khalija's followers, completed his rout and conducted the operations which resulted in the death of that daring scourge of the Sudan. He succeeded Lord Kitchener as Sirdar in 1899 and received the G.C.B., in June 1914.

He served in India in 1881-1883, joining the Egyptian army in the latter year. In the following year he acted as A. D. C. and Military Secretary to Sir Evelyn Wood during the Nile Expedition. In 1897 he was sent on a special mission to King Minelik of Abyssinia and was similarly at the head of the mission to Somaliland in 1909. He took part in the battles of Akaba (1898) and Khartoum and the Fashoda expedition and was thanked for his services by both Houses of Parliament, besides receiving the K.C.M.G. He is a soldier of experience and distinction and the author of more than one standard work on Matidism and the Sudan.

THE LAST OF THE KHEDIVES.

Abbas Hilmi, a great-great-grandson of Mahomet Ali, succeeded to the throne in 1892, on the death of his father Tewfik. He was quite a young man and at first failed to comprehend the need of understanding his position as Khedive under the protection of Britain. He secretly encouraged an anti-British agitation, but at last realising his own danger, he submitted without further trouble. He has generally shown himself, at any rate in recent years, to be a man of strong common sense, who recognised the inevitability of the British occupation, and he, at any rate, should have been under no delusion as to the resources and possibilities of British power. He, however, fell into the trap prepared for him by Enver Pasha and his German dictators at the outbreak of war and succumbed to the prospect held out to him of being restored to despotic power in Egypt. He was in the Turkish capital when the war broke out, and he openly acknowledged, as stated in Sir Louis Mallet's despatch, his presence with the expedition organised by the German Embassy for the invasion of Egypt. At the suggestion of Lord Kitchener, he undertook last spring a tour through lower Egypt. On his return from the tour, he left for Vienna and Constantinople, where he has since remained.

Abbas Hilmi has been variously described as the most enlightened oriental prince and as "a Turk at heart with a veneer of Vienna." Here he was educated and from here came one of his wives. Each summer sees him at his Villa on the Bhosphorous. Though nominally only a Turkish Governor, it was England's policy to treat him and to address him in every way as a sovereign. And this, despite the fact that international agreements only recognised him as a Viceroy. Casting discretion and interest overboard, it was frequently Abbas's way to follow sentiment and ambition as his guides. He has, at last, paid the penalty for his folly by being deprived of his throne.

The relationship between him and the British Government has never been of the friendliest description. His accession synchronised with the renewal of a period of dissatisfaction and instability. Many excuses have been found for this unfriendly attitude, and the fact appears to be that, having been called to the throne while yet in his teens, he manifested an exaggerated idea of his position. He came into collision with Sirdar Kitchener by his open affronts to the British officers in the Egyptian Army, early in his reign. General Kitchener, however, was induced to withdraw his resignation, the ex-Khedive at the bidding of the British Government issuing a general order expressing his approval of the discipline and efficiency of the Army. Abbas and Lord Kitchener met again when the latter went to Cairo as British agent in 1911. The ex-Khedive, who was a shrewd and courageous, if selfish man, realised that the British rule which he hated was sounder than ever, and was moreover, directed by a military genius. There was thus no open rupture but fresh diplomatic bouts between the two adversaries during the two years of the present War Minister's regime in Egypt. This period was marked by the ex-Khedive's defiance of the British Agent's determination to place the administration of the Wakf or Pious foundations on a sound footing. The control of the funds were eventually transferred from the Khedive to the Government. The ex-Khedive's chief hobby has been the private railway which he constructed across the desert in the direction of Tobruk.

In an interview which the ex-Khedive is said to have given to the Constantinople correspondent of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, he is reported to have said :—

"I regard the position with calm and absolute confidence. Without reason and against all justice, Britain has prevented me from returning to my country. Now I know what I must do. My holiest duties compelled me to remain in Constantinople near the suzerain of Egypt.

"A powerful expedition against Egypt is being prepared in Turkey with the object of doing away with the temporary occupation of that country by Britain and restoring the position as it was before 1882. I do not doubt for one moment the complete success of this expedition, any more than the enthusiastic reception on which the famous Turkish Imperial troops may reckon at the hands of all classes of the population.

"I and my people hold firmly to the principles of our religion. We know our duty towards the Sultan, the head of the true believers. I am now preparing to accompany the Turkish Army on its journey to Egypt. With Allah's help I look forward to the speedy success of our plan."

The authenticity of the interview has since been denied, but it is interesting as revealing the political faith of Abbas Hilmi, in view of the situation that has developed in Egypt. His defection has spelt his political suicide.

THE NEW SULTAN OF EGYPT.

Prince Hussein Pasha Kamel, the new Sovereign of Egypt, is the second and favourite son of the late Khedive Ismail, and is now in his sixty-second year. In his 14th year, he was sent to Paris to complete his education, where he stayed as the guest of Napoleon III, with whose ill-fated son, the Prince Imperial, he was on terms of life-long friendship. When the Empress Eugenie came to Egypt for the opening of the Suez Canal two years later, the young Prince was appointed Chamberlain in her suite. He filled a similar rôle in 1889 when the late King Edward (then Prince of Wales) visited the Khedive Fewfik at Cairo. Next year, he was similarly appointed Special High Commissioner on the occasion of the visit of the Russian Crown Prince. The visit of the Empress Eugenie over, he returned to Paris *via* Florence, where his father sent him on a mission to King Victor Emmanuel. The outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War brought his studies to an abrupt termination, and he left Paris before the siege.

Returning to Egypt in his eighteenth year, his father appointed him Inspector-General, and so well did he acquit himself in that post that next year, he was appointed Minister of Public Instruction, Wakfs and Public Works. During the next five years, Prince Hussein was placed successively at the head of all the Egyptian administrations, thus gaining a profound knowledge of affairs.

His tenure of the War Office Portfolio coincided with the most stirring days of pre-occupation in Egypt. He worked for the creation of an African Empire, the Egyptian army under his guidance pushed its way into the heart of the Sudan.

When Ismail was forced to abdicate, Prince Hussein accompanied him into exile, but returned to Egypt in 1883. For many years afterwards he took no part in the administration, because he was on unfriendly terms with his nephew, the deposed Khedive. In January 1909 he however returned to public life and accepted the post of President of the Legislative Council and the General Assembly. He succeeded in raising the tone of these bodies and contrived to make their deliberations more intelligent and useful. He resigned both posts, however, owing to the opposition to the Suez Canal contract, of the utility of which he was convinced, but his arguments had no effect on the Assembly. He is a large landowner, and is well-known for his solicitude for the welfare of the Egyptian peasantry.

SIR ARTHUR M'MAHON
THE HIGH COMMISSIONER OF EGYPT.

It is a truism to say that the hour brings forth the man. In Colonel Sir Arthur Henry M'Mahon's case this is particularly true. Sir Henry M'Mahon was born in 1862 and was the eldest son of Lt.-Gen. C. A. M'Mahon an Irishman of good family. Sir Henry was educated in the Haileybury Royal Military College and Sandhurst. He joined the British Army in 1883, the Indian Staff Corps in 1885 and joined the Panjab Frontier Force. In 1887 he was placed on the Punjab Commission and in 1890 the Indian Political Department. Among other important missions he accompanied the Durand Commission to Kabul as Political officer in 1893 and had a great deal of work to do in connection with frontier surveys in Baluchistan, etc. When His Majesty the Amir of Kabul visited India in 1907 Sir Henry M' Mahon was appointed Chief Officer in charge of the visit. He was created an Afghan Sirdar of the first-class in 1907, and Agent to the Governor-General and was Chief Commissioner of Baluchistan from 1905 to 1911 and was finally appointed Master of Ceremonies to His Majesty the King during the royal visit to Delhi.

Sir Henry has been nearly all his official life in touch with Mohammedans, with Mohammedan thoughts and sentiment, Mohammedan customs and habits and by his translation to Egypt as High Commissioner, he will be in a more or less familiar environment.

The *Times* commenting on Sir Henry M' Mahon's appointment said " there were obvious reasons why this officer (the High Commissioner) should not be chosen from the Egyptian service and the appointment in no way reflects upon the several able Englishmen in Egypt who might otherwise have been brought within the field of selection. Sir Henry M' Mahon has filled many important posts in India and is endowed with great capacity, extreme tact and a willingness to accept responsibility fearlessly, which has often been demonstrated in past years. We think he will be found not unworthy to follow in the footsteps of Lord Cromer and Lord Kitchener."

Sir Henry has said that he has been intimately associated with Indian Musalmans and Persians during his career and that he was deeply interested in all questions relating to Islam and that Egypt had always had a deep fascination for him. Sir Henry speaks Hindustani and is acquainted with the written characters of Arabic.

THE FUTURE GOVERNMENT OF EGYPT

The following from the "Official Journal" dated the 19th Dec. 1914, which is the text of the letter of the British agent to the New Sultan shows clearly the policy that will henceforward be followed in Egypt.

"Of the rights thus accruing to His Majesty, no less than of those exercised in Egypt during the last thirty years of reform, His Majesty's Government regard themselves as trustees for the inhabitants of Egypt. And His Majesty's Government have decided that Great Britain can best fulfil the responsibilities she has incurred towards Egypt by the formal declaration of a British Protectorate and by the government of the country under such Protectorate by a Prince of the Khedivial Family.

"I am instructed by His Majesty's Government to inform Your Highness that by reason of your age and experience, you have been chosen as the Prince of the Family of Mahomed Ali most worthy to occupy the Khedivial position with the title and style of Sultan of Egypt; and in inviting Your Highness to accept the responsibilities of your high office, I am to give you the formal assurance that Great Britain accepts the fullest responsibility for the defence of the territories under Your Highness against all aggression whencesoever coming; and His Majesty's Government authorise me to declare that after the establishment of the British Protectorate now announced all Egyptian subjects, wherever they may be, will be entitled to receive the protection of His Majesty's Government.

"With the Ottoman suzerainty there will disappear the restrictions heretofore placed by the Ottoman *firmans* upon the numbers and organisation of Your Highness's army and upon the grant by Your Highness of honorific distinctions.

"As regards foreign relations, His Majesty's Government deem it most consistent with the new responsibilities assumed by Great Britain that the relations between Your Highness's Government and the Representatives of Foreign Powers should henceforth be conducted through His Majesty's representative in Cairo.

"His Majesty's Government have repeatedly placed on record that the system of treaties known as the capitulations, by which Your Highness's Government is bound, are no longer in harmony with the development of the country; but in the opinion of His Majesty's Government the revision of those treaties may most conveniently be postponed until the end of the present war.

"In the field of internal administration I am to remind Your Highness that, in consonance with the traditions of British policy, it has been the aim of His Majesty's Government, while working through and in the closest association with the constituted Egyptian authorities, to secure individual liberty, to promote the spread of education, to further the development of the natural resources of the country and in such measure as the degree of enlightenment of public opinion may permit, to associate the governed in the task of Government. Not only is it the intention of His Majesty's Government to remain faithful to such policy, but they are convinced that the clearer definition of Great Britian's position in the country will accelerate progress towards self-government.

"The religious convictions of Egyptian subjects will be scrupulously respected as are those of His Majesty's own subjects, whatever their creed. Nor need I affirm to Your Highness that in declaring Egypt free from any duty of obedience to those who have usurped political power at Constantinople, His Majesty's Government are animated by no hostility towards the Kaliphate. The past history of Egypt shows, indeed that the loyalty of Egyptian Mahomedans towards the Kaliphate is independent of any political bond between Egypt and Constantinople.

"The strengthening and progress of Mahomedan institutions in Egypt is naturally a matter in which His Majesty's Government take a deep interest and with which Your Highness will be specially concerned, and in carrying out such reforms as may be considered necessary, Your Highness may count upon the sympathetic support of His Majesty's Government.

"I am to add that His Majesty's Government rely with confidence upon the loyalty, the good sense and self-restraint of Egyptian subjects to facilitate the task of the General Officer Commanding His Majesty's Forces, who is entrusted with the maintenance of internal order and with the prevention of the rendering of aid to the enemy"

THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE WAR AREA*

BY MR. J. HAMILTON BIRRELL, M.A., F.R.S.G.S.

THE annexation by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908 foreshadowed a larger policy which should secure her undoubted supremacy in the Balkan Peninsula. She turned her eyes on Salonika, as did Germany on Constantinople, to both of which the approach lies by the Morava tributary of the Danube, through Serbia. Hence Austria's partial envelopment of that small country as evidenced in a study of the boundary between them, the Austro-German economic supremacy in Serbia (those countries are credited with two-thirds of Serbia's trade), and Austria's fear that the existance of a strong Slavonic Power would excite her discontented Slavs, all pointed to an attempt to smother Serbia. Austria's refusal of an Adriatic outlet for Serbia, culminating in the creation of Albania, also foreshadowed this.

But it was not to the interest of Russia to allow either Austria or Germany to control Balkan policy. As champion of the Slavs and head of the Greek Church, as well as because of her persistent claim to the natural outlet to the Mediterranean, she threw her weight on Serbia's side, and is demonstrating to the world that she is awakening to her vast potentialities. Germany desired to cripple her before her full development should be reached. The ultimate defeat of Russia by Germany is a chimera.

The purchase by Germany of Turkey's assistance was not carried through because of the strength of that moribund country in military resources. This Power, at one time formidable and triumphant, has sunk through misgovernment and corruption, involving an insecurity that ruins political, social, and economic life. From controlling the Balkan Peninsula, Turkey-in-Europe, by the successive rebellion and defection of liberty-loving subject-States, with their natural jealousies and political desires for consolidation, has become disintegrated and reduced to a small area, consisting of the immediate hinderland of Constantinople, with a population only a little greater than that of the city itself.

Germany's purpose was much more diabolical than the mere attempt to buy an ally. Her aim was the declaration, by the supreme head of a large part of the Mohammedan Church, of a Holy War of the Mohammedans over the earth. The underlying idea was to involve India (Mohammedan population 21 per cent. of whole), Egypt (92 per cent.), and other areas in the British Empire in an internal struggle which would have taxed our powers and weakened our resources. That such a plan miscarried, especially in our great Indian Empire, is due in part to an appreciation of the non-necessity on any religious grounds for a Holy War, and in part to the justness and fairness of our rule in our great Eastern dependency.

The disappearance of Turkey-in-Europe, should it occur, may involve the break-up of the Turkish Empire in Asia, where the Arabs and Armenians may seek independence, and Mesopotamia be protected by some European Power. Germany's projects in the Ottoman Empire were foreshadowed in the concessions she obtained in Mesopotamia, while France, which is Turkey's greatest creditor, and Britain, which has also advanced loans in exchange for concessions, to the almost bankrupt Government at Constantinople, must have a large share in the determination of any policy that may be necessary at that city. But, above all, the claims of Russia, Turkey's great antagonist, cannot be disputed, and "the weaker Turkey becomes, the greater is the share which Russia will have in the ultimate solution."

Thus the Eastern theatre of war gives the teacher of geography a first-rate opportunity for lessons on areas that generally receive scant attention. Lake-riddled East Prussia; the plain and plateau of economically rich Poland; the industrial area of Silesia; the agricultural and pastoral Galicia, with its oil-wells and salt-mines; forested Bukovina; the passes and railways of the Carpathians, Hungary, Serbia, and the loose Turkish Empire in Asia, offer fertile fields of study in ethnological, political, economic, and physical geography.

Ethnologically, the Estern war-area is a great jig-saw puzzle quite beyond the powers of school-children. Their understanding is limited in most

* *From The School World.*

AMERICA AND THE WAR

BY

THE REV. R. A. HUME, M.A., D.D.

THE avowed purpose of Great Britain in the present awful war is the overthrow for all time of the doctrine of the divine right of the sword, and a guarantee of the security of justice between nation and nation. Because the ideal of America is the same, the sympathy of the great majority of Americans is with the Allies. Can this ideal and this purpose be best promoted by the continued neutrality of the United States or by their entering the war? Considerable knowledge of the utterances of the American Press justifies the conviction that America's service to humanity can be best promoted by continued neutrality. From the very beginning of American agitation for the Hague tribunal to promote arbitration as a substitute for war in the settlement of international differences, the only avowed object has been the establishment, not of peace, but of justice between nations by righteousness, thorough reason and the moral opinion of the world exerted through the good offices of sister nations. Since Austria and Germany would not wait for diplomacy and arbitration to settle the question between Austria and Servia, pathetic as is the present distress in Europe, what Americans most desire is not an early peace, but such a righteous settlement of the basal issue as will result in an enduring peace. For the following reasons the United States should not enter the war. The sinking of the *Falaba*, the *Gulflight*, and the *Lusitania*, over which there is some immediate excitement, is not of any fundamental consideration.

The very great majority of Americans rightly hate all war. One-half of the population is composed of women, ninety-nine per cent. of whom intensely hate the very thought of war. In the world at large it has been assumed that the way for any nation which considered itself injured to get its rights was to go to war. But history clearly shows the more thoughtful Americans that war never decides issues on the score of right. Therefore they will to the end oppose every effort that their country should enter this war.

An evidence that all Americans do not believe in war is that by the law of the land its regular army is very small. The total effective regular American army is less than a hundred thousand men. The soldier will always be, in some respects, a moral ideal, not because he desires to kill others, but because for his country or some great cause he is ever ready to lay down his own life. Perhaps naturally it is assumed that in most nations most soldiers not only believe in war, but desire it, for war supplies them the opportunity for doing what an army is trained to be ready to do, gives the excitement of opportunity for personal achievement, and ensures honour and promotion to some of those who particularly distinguish themselves. Nevertheless, whatever may be true of many soldiers, at least in America the impression prevails that the highest officers of their army and even the rank-and-file do not desire war, and would enter upon it only as the last resort. One of the greatest of American soldiers, General W. T. Sherman, uttered the trenchant words: "War is hell," which are for ever imbedded in the national heart. The present Chief of Staff of the American Army, General Hugh Scott, has lately twice prevented his country being drawn into war. For some years Mexico has been cursed by a civil war caused by unpatriotic personal jealousies between unworthy leaders. The lives and property of some Americans have been destroyed and of many others have been imperilled. If in any country armed intervention by the United States would be justifiable, it was in the Mexican embroglio. Yet not only President Wilson and his Cabinet, but also General Scott and his Staff have restrained their country from the arbitrament of arms. Take one illustration. The Rio Grand River divides Mexio from the United States. Mexican troops firing near that river, perhaps unintentionally, killed some Americans in American territory. Under such circumstances what would many military leaders have done? General Scott asked and obtained an interview which resulted in Mexican troops being withdrawn to a safe distance, and to an apology for the unintentional wrong. Even the American army probably does not favour being drawn into the European war.

Within the brief duration of the present administration, according to the present writer's impression, the United States has entered into treaties with thirty-five countries though some of

them are small nations, that all differences which may arise between those countries and the United States shall be submitted to arbitration before hostilities could begin. While the probability of war between those lands and America is small, yet the United States is thankful that its location, its power, and its relations to all other countries enables it to lead the world to substitute arbitration for war. Cynicists will aver that this is wholly impossible. But arbitration has displaced fighting in the relations of individuals, small communities and small nations. If America believes that arbitration should at least precede hostilities and is negotiating many treaties embodying this principle, how absurd it would be for that country to go to war against Germany over such incidents as the sinking of the *Lusitania*! Germany does not desire war with America nor America with Germany.

America is a country where the churches contain a very large part of the population and exert great influence over public policy. President Wilson and Secretary Bryan are devout elders in the Presbyterian Church. The clergy and great majority of Church members believe that war, except for extremely grave considerations, is not the Christian way of settling international difficulties.

Even internal considerations will interfere with the United States entering the present war. To a large degree America is composed of an immense number of immigrants from Europe and their descendants. One of the glories of America is that these mixed peoples become citizens who make loyalty to their present country their first consideration. Yet naturally they are also loyal to the countries from which they came. There are many millions of Americans of German descent who approve of neutrality in the present war, who would bitterly resent America's entering into war with their Fatherland. Englishmen who have some realization of the awful bitterness between Ulster and the rest of Ireland could hardly expect the United States to enter upon a course which would certainly develop similar bitterness in her borders.

Very few Englishmen realize what interests America has in Turkey. The fact that every leader of the Ottoman Empire has always known that the United States absolutely and for ever has no desire for a political foothold in Turkey has made it possible for Americans to conduct Christian missions in that empire with far less difficulty than the missionary representatives of other countries. Every French priest in Syria has been thought as one seeking to promote French interests. From Constantinople to Bagdad every German missionary has (in some cases with due reason) been deemed an emissary of the German empire's effort to secure predominance there. So American missions in the Ottoman Empire far exceed those of all other lands. A score of fine colleges, scores of finely equipped hospitals, numerous schools and industrial institutions connected with American missions are in both European and Asiatic Turkey. Apart from commercial enterprises, on a conservative estimate $9,000,000 of American money are invested in such religious institutions. Despite the intensity of Mohammedan opposition to Christian effort, in the main the persons and even the property of Americans are tolerably secure so long as America remains neutral.

While remaining neutral America is rendering to humanity in relief to starving Belgium a stupendous service, which would be impossible were the United States to enter the war. Through an American Commision the United States has since November sent to Begium food and clothing amounting to 668,000 tons, valued at over ten million pounds sterling, and is at present feeding over one and a half millions of destitute people, most of whom would probably otherwise starve to death. Germany allows neutral America to perform this service to humanity, but would instantly disallow it, if America abandoned neutrality.

At the close of this war there will be need of the friendly offices of one or more strong neutral nations to help, in some measurably impartial spirit, in leading the warring nations to the mutual acceptance of terms of peace, which will give some assurance that eternal bitterness shall not remain. The final settlement of the Russo-Japanese war was measurably satisfactory, because in the Peace of Portsmouth the representatives of the United States used their great influence to the acceptance of terms which quieted determination to renew the conflict out of revenge. It is in the interests of lessening the probability of future war that President Wilson, supported by the majority of his countrymen, is trying to have America scrupulously observe official neutrality, though, through the legitimate services of private individuals, the Allies get more aid than Germany and Austria.

At a recent gathering in London, Sir Gilbert Parker, M.P., wisely said: "It is infinitely better for the world's sake and for our own that the United States should not abandon her neutrality."

WHY AMERICA IS NEUTRAL.*

BY PRESIDENT WILSON.

"Do you realise that, roughly speaking, we are the only great nation at present disengaged? I am not speaking, of course, with disparagement of the greater of those nations in Europe which are not parties to the present war, but I am thinking how their lives much more than ours touch the very heart and soul of the business, whereas we have rolling between us and those bitter days across the water 3,000 miles of cool and silent ocean.

"Our atmosphere is not yet charged with those disturbing elements which must be felt and must permeate every nation in Europe. Therefore is it not likely that the nations of the world will some day turn to us for the cooler assessment of the elements engaged? I am not now thinking so preposterous a thought as that we should sit in judgment upon them. No nation is fit to sit in judgment upon any other nation, but we shall some day have to assist in reconstructing the processes of peace. Our resources are untouched. We are more and more becoming by force of circumstances the mediating nation of the world in respect of its finances. We must make up our minds what are the best things to do and what are the best way to do them.

"So that I am not speaking in a selfish spirit when I say that our whole duty for the present, at any rate, is summed up in this motto: 'America first.' Let us think of America before we think of Europe in order that America may be fit to be Europe's friend when the day of tested friendship comes. The test of friendship is not now sympathy with one side or the other, but getting ready to help both sides when the struggle is over.

"The basis of neutrality, gentlemen, is not indifference, it is not self-interest. The basis of neutrality is sympathy for mankind. It is fairness, it is goodwill. At the bottom it is impartiality of spirit and judgment. I wish that all of our fellow-citizens could realise that. There is in some quarters a disposition to create distempers in this body politic. Men are even uttering slanders against the United States as if to excite her. Men are saying that if we should go to war upon either side there will be a divided America—an abominable libel of ignorance.

"We are the mediating nation of the world. I do not mean we undertake not to mind our own business and to mediate where other people are quarrelling. I mean the word in a broader sense. We are compounded of the nations of the world. We mediate their blood, we mediate their traditions; we mediate their sentiments, their tastes, their passions. We are ourselves compounded of those things; we are therefore able to understand all nations."

Emphasizing the necessity of national self-control, President Wilson said: "I am interested in neutrality because there is something so much greater to do than fight, because there is a distinction waiting for this nation that no nation has ever yet got, that is the distinction of absolute self-control and self-mastery.

"Whom do you admire most among your friends? The irritable man, the man out of whom you can get a rise without trying the man who will fight at the drop of the hat, whether he knows what the hat is dropped for or not? Don't you admire and don't you fear if you have to contest with him, the self-mastered man who watches you with a calm eye and comes in only when you have carried the thing so far that you must be disposed of?

"That is the man you respect, that is the man who you know has at the bottom a much more fundamental and terrible courage than the irritable fighting man. Now, I covet for America this splendid courage of reserve moral force, and I wanted to point out to you, gentlemen, simply this: There is news and news. There is what is called news, that turns out to be falsehood at any rate in what it is said to signify and which if you could get the nation to believe, if true, might disturb our equilibrium and our self-possession.

Concluding his speech, President Wilson said: "If I permit myself to be partisan in this present struggle I would be unworthy to represent you; if I permitted myself to forget the people who are not partisans, I would be unworthy to represent you. I am not saying that I am worthy to represent you, but I do claim this degree of worthiness that before everything else I love America."

* An interview with American Press Representatives.

The World's Tribute to Belgium.*

THE ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY:—Then the story of Belgium's steadfastness to her plighted word of honour, and her tireless resistance to high-handed wrong—a resistance sustained with unconquerable courage in face of ruthless and overwhelming force—will become one of the golden pages of the world's history.

H. H. THE AGA KHAN:—Had Belgium been guided by considerations of materialhood and immediate interest she should have accepted the Kaiser's promise not to molest or injure if he was allowed an undisputed passage to the French frontier for his troops. But this easy and inglorious course was not contemplated even for a moment. Belgium unhesitatingly chose the path of honour and duty and made an irreparable sacrifice of material good and moral glory. This undying record of a great refusal has appealed to the best traditions and sentiments of Moslems in India, whose history affords many stirring examples of readiness to lose all, even life itself, for honour and duty.

THE RT. HON. ARTHUR J. BALFOUR:—The weakness of the victim, the justice of her cause, the greatness of her sufferings, and her unconquerable soul, have moved the wonder and pity of the world.

HIS EXCELLENCY KATSUNOSKE INOUYE:—In Japan where chivalry and patriotism reigns, Belgium's heroic defence has greatly aroused the sympathy of her people, and we join in the hope that her flag, adorned anew with glory, will in no distant future be floating again triumphantly throughout her dominion.

THE RT. HON. SIR EDWARD GREY, *Bart*:—Love of liberty and independence is not crushed by oppression and force, but set off by courage and suffering becomes an inspiration to its own generation and is exalted to an imperishable place in history.

LORD HARDINGE, VICEROY OF INDIA:—No nation has regarded with greater abhorrence than India the series of crime committed by Germans against their peaceful Belgian brothers. With the deep sympathy, felt for them by the people of India in this hour of sorrow, is coupled their admiration of the gallant resistance of their army against the heaviest odds. May they be comforted by the thought that their sacrifices will not have been in vain when the oppressors of the weak have been finally overthrown. India will never rest till Belgium's wrongs have been avenged.

THE MARQUESS OF CREWE:—Saluting with deep respect the gallant Belgians and their noble sovereign, we reflect that never in the world's history has any nation, with so slender a pretence of reason, been subjected to outrage so cruel and so deliberate as that which has lately stirred the blood of civilised mankind.

JOHN REDMOND:—There is no nation in the world which has been more profoundly touched than Ireland by the extraordinary gallantry of the Belgian people and their brave sovereign.

EARL CURZON OF KEDLESTON:—For her fortitude she has paid the penalty of a suffering unequalled in modern history, inflicted by an enemy, to whose cruelty ancient history scarcely affords a parallel.

FREDERIC HARRISON:—In all modern history there is no example of a martyrdom by a whole nation—so cruel—so generous—so valiant. When France, Britain, Russia shall have crushed out this conspiracy against humanity, when militarism is extinct in Germany—extinct for ever in the world—whatever may have been the victories and the achievements of the allies—still for all time, the heroism of the Belgian people who "first bore the brunt of the terrible mede" (as the stora would say at Athens) will stand highest in the record of valour.

THE RT. HON. DAVID LLOYD GEORGE.—This unfortunate country is now overwhelmed by the barbarian flood; but when the sanguinary deluge subsides Belgium will emerge a great and a glorious land which every lover of liberty will honour, and every tyrant henceforth shun.

VISCOUNT BRYCE:—All honour to the Belgian King and the Belgian people. No King, and no nation, not even the oldest and strongest nation, has shown more dignity and gallantry than Belgium, which is amongst youngest and the smallest in area of European states.

NORMAN ANGELL:—Belgium has done this great service for all of us: she has shown how great a little country may be and how little a great one may become. She has shown that the real nobility of patriotism is not a matter of wide territory of political power and does not need to be nourished by these things; while the action of Germany towards Belgium has shown that power and size may well destroy all that makes partriotism worth while.

SIR OLIVER LODGE:—Humanity blesses the heroic struggle for freedom of the Belgian Nation; for without their aid the face of Europe would have been changed past redemption and the earth might have been subject to a brutal and intolerable dominance. We have witnessed in our own geneneration one of the classical contests of the world; and the tale will go down to the remote posterity—a tale of deep infamy and lofty honour—relating how at this time the powers of evil were frustrated, and how the holiest cause emerged, stricken but victorious,—triumphing as always through grievous pain.

SIR VALENTINE CHIROL:—King Albert is the only sovereign whose Royal title is not a territorial one. He is styled king, not of Belgium but of the Belgians; as if it had been pre-ordained that though a ruthless conqueror might rob him for a time of his kingdom, none should ever rob him of his kingship. Never perhaps more proudly than to-day, when his Government has been compelled to seek refuge on the hospitable soil of France and he himself, at the head of his indomitable army, is fighting close to the French frontier for the last inch of Belgian territory, has King Albert vindicated his right to a splendid title: King of the Belgians, Heroic head of an Heroic people.

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* Selections taken from "King Albert's Book" edited by Mr. Hall Caine, and published by the "Daily Telegraph," London.

THE RT. HON. A. BONAR LAW:—As a nation we long for a successful end to this terrible war, which is filling with mourning so many of our homes, but it can never end till the wrongs of Belgium have been avenged and expiated.

PROFESSOR PAUL VINOGRADOFF:— In ages to come travellers will look with pious emotion on the sites of Liege, Louvain, Antwerp, the shores of the Yser, and if at the close of this terrible war a prize were to be adjudicated to the most valiant nation, as the Greeks did in their war of independence against the Persian king, the prize would surely fall by unanimous consent to Belgium. If there is justice in the world and a meaning in history Belgium will arise out of the ashes, like Phoenix in renewed vigour splendour.

BENJAMIN KIDD:— It is an immortal story of right rendered invincible through the crucifixion of a people.

EMMELINE PANKHURST:— In the days to come mothers will tell their children how a small but a great-souled nation fought to the death against overwhelming odds and sacrificed all things to save the world from an intolerable tyranny.

The story of the Belgian people's defence of Freedom will inspire countless generations yet unborn.

THE RT. HON. SYED AMEER ALI:— The country devastated, ancient seats of learning rendered desolate, people driven from their homes for refuge in distant lands make the heart throb with infinite sorrow and pain.

SIR H. RIDER HAGGARD:— The desolation of Belgium is perhaps the most appalling worldcrime since the working of the Netherlands by Alva. That iniquity was followed by the decay of Spain while, in the end, Holland recovered and grew great in freedom. It may well be that the eternal laws of justice shall work in such fashion that a like judgment will fall upon the proud head of Germany and that a like triumph awaits her victim.

SIR EDWARD RUSSELL:— Belgium passes into history a splendid paragon of ideal and agonised heroism—heroism for world-wide right as well as a heroism of patriotism—a heroism devoted to the purgation of power from the curse and blight of sinister aggression, of sanguinary rapine, of domineering usurpation.

THE RT. HON. AUGUSTINE BIRRELL:— Blood and tears are powerful ingredients in the manufacture of manhood, and it may well be that in due time, those who come after this blood-stained age will be able to see in the masterpieces of the new Flemish art and literature some traces of the heroic resolve and fierce determination to bear cruel misfortune we have witnessed with so much admiration.

LORD READING, LORD CHIEF JUSTICE OF ENGLAND:— Germany's attack upon Belgium is a tragedy in the history of human progress; it is a stab at the heart of civilisation. Fortunately Belgium has minimised the gravity of the blow to the human race by the moral grandeur she has attained under the leadership of her king.

SIR E. RAY LANKESTER:— I venture to render my homage to King Albert and his people as one who knows and loves the unconquerable spirit, the unswerving fidelity of the free and independent Belgian folk.

H. A. L. FISHER:— So long as a respect of right survives upon this planet it will be remembered that the king of a tiny nation once vindicated the public law of Europe against the brutal aggression of a mighty power knowing well that it would be for his heroic subject to sustain the first furies of the attack and to endure the certain cruelties of temporary conquest. It will be remembered that the capture of forts and cities, the defeats of armies, the murder of women and children, the burning of a cathedral and a library famous throughout the civilised world, neither weakened his resolution nor broke the spirit of his people, and that he and his fought on tenaciously to the end, saving the honour and liberties of Europe by their act of desperate and inspired valour.

SIR NORMAN LOCKYER:— The story of the bravery which king Albert and his nation have shown in sacrificing everything rather than honour will be handed down from generation to generation, a monument to a great people.

ROMAIN ROLLAND:— Belgium has just written an Epic, the echos of which will resound through the ages.

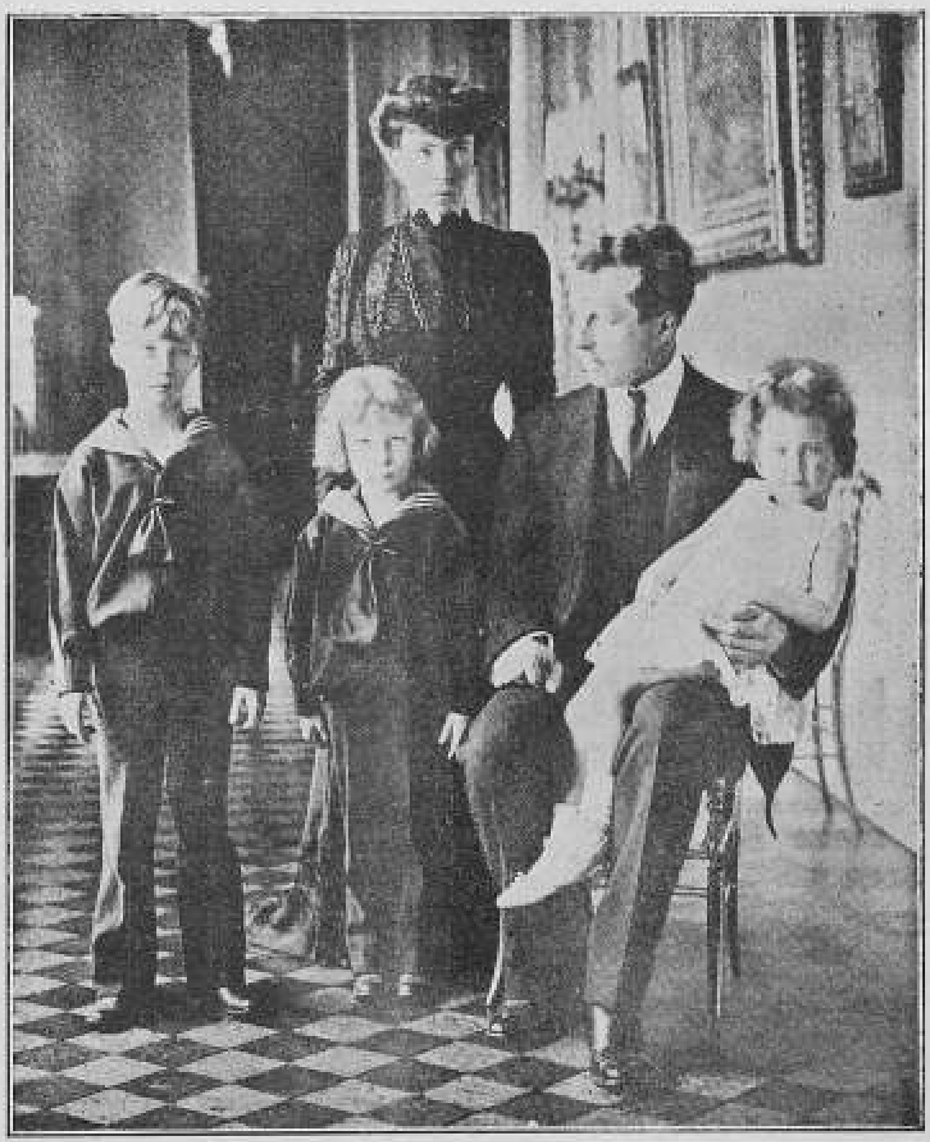
ANATOLE FRANCE:— Not in vain will Albert and Belgium in arms have made Leige the Thermopylae of European civilisation. They have broken the rush of the barbarians, contributed largely to the victory of our Allies, and ensured the triumph of right and liberty.

HALL CAINE:—No more woeful and terrible spectacle of a country in utter desolation ever came from earthquake, eruption or other convulsion of Nature in her wrath than has been produced in Belgium by the hand of man. A complete nation is in ruin. A whole country is in ashes. An entire people are destitute, homeless and on the roads. A little Kingdom, dedicated to liberty, has "kept the pledge and died for it."

THE EARL OF ROSEBERY:—Not the resistance at Thermopylæ to the millions of Xerxes was more splendid, and Thermopylæ only involved the sacrifice of a handful of men, while this has cost a country and a nation.

There have been three Kings of the Belgians. The first, Leopold, steered the little kingdom with exquisite skill through dangers from within and from without until he was hailed as the Nestor of Europe. The second energetically sustained and developed the commerce and manufactures of his realm with extraordinary success. But the third, Albert, has already eclipsed his predecessors and ranks with William the Silent, the indomitable champion of the Low Countries.

SIR SIDNEY LEE:—The King of the Belgians and his brave army have set an example which lends humanity a new glory. Their heroic resistance to the wholly unmerited wrongs, which brute strength has forced upon them, has shed fresh radiance on the history of the civilised world. In spite of the cruel suffering which the ruthless enemy has sown broadcast through the land, in spite of all the waste and desolation which German soldiers have inflicted without pity or remorse, Belgium, its ruler and its people, may find hope and consolation in the knowledge that the justice of their cause is recognised wherever truth and right prevail, and that the honour of all honourable men is pledged to secure for them due reparation of their unconscionable wrongs.



THE BELGIAN ROYAL FAMILY.

KING OF DENMARK. KING OF SWEDEN. KING OF NORWAY.

THE SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS

BY PROFESSOR E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

THE Scandinavian Kingdoms form an interesting study for those who are engaged in trying to discover the meaning of the term nationality. The peoples of Denmark, Norway and Sweden belong to the same branch of the Indo-European stock; their languages are closely connected; geographically they are near to one another, two of them occupying what would seem to be intended by nature to be a political whole; they profess the same form of religious belief; they have been at times united under one monarch, and yet they have all of them persisted in developing distinct nationalities of their own and in refusing to be joined with the others in a single Scandinavian state. Though now of but secondary importance as European powers, partly because of their "particularism," they have at times played a very prominent part in the history of Europe, and the internal history of them all is of interest to the student. It is impossible in a brief sketch, such as this article must be, to attempt even to outline their history. All that can be done is to refer to the most outstanding events in their connection with the rest of Europe, and to try to explain their present standing.

When they first appear in history it is as the home of the dreaded Northmen whose attacks on Western Europe in the ninth and tenth centuries threatened to destroy its civilisation. From being mere raiders the Northmen became settlers and exercised immense influence on the history of the countries where they settled. England was conquered by the "Danes;" at the mouth of every important French river there was a colony of Northmen; Ireland, the north of Scotland and the Scottish islands came under their sway. It was only in the 13th century that Scotland regained the Hebrides and not till after the middle of the 15th century that she recovered the Orkneys and the Shetlands. In their adventurous voyages the Vikings colonised Iceland and Greenland and even reached the shores of the mainland of North America. Russian history begins with the appearance of Rurik and his Varangians who probably came from Sweden, and under their leadership Constantinople itself was attacked. But for the settlement of the Northmen in Normandy the history of both France and England would have been very different, and it was the Normans who drove the Saracens out of Sicily and created the kingdom of Naples.

Part of the restlessness of the Vikings appears to have been due to the action of Harold Haarfager who in 832 founded the kingdom of Norway by defeating the independent kings or chiefs. His successors carried on his work, and his descendants sat on the throne of Norway till the fourteenth century. One of them, Olaf by name, introduced Christianity into Norway about 1000 A.D. Another, named Eric, married the daughter of Alexander III. of Scotland and was the father of the little "Maid of Norway," who for four years was nominally Queen of Scotland. Edward I. in order to unite England and Scotland arranged for her marriage with the future Edward II., but her early death while on her way from Norway to Scotland frustrated this plan and led to the hostility between England and Scotland which lasted for three centuries. In 1319 the line of Harold Haarfager became extinct and the throne of Norway passed to Magnus Erikson, the king of Sweden. Magnus transferred it to his son Hakon, the husband of Margaret the Queen of Denmark. After his death Margaret succeeded in 1397 in bringing about the Union of Kalmar by which all the three Scandinavian kingdoms were united under her rule. From that date till 1814 Norway followed the fortunes of Denmark. It was practically a Danish province, and Danish is still used in Norway by most writers as the literary language.

The first monarch of real importance in the history of Denmark is Gorm, the great-grandfather of Canute or Knut the Great. Gorm drove out a Swedish dynasty and tried to stop the growth of Christianity. He came into collision with Henry the Fowler who became king of Germany in 918, and Denmark was more or less a fief of the German Empire till the end of the twelfth century. Canute, whose doings on the seashore are so familiar to every schoolboy, and who finally established Christianity in Denmark in the beginning of the eleventh century, conquered England and Norway, and it looked for a time as if the west of Europe might be-

come a great Anglo-Scandinavian power. After his death, however, his empire fell to pieces. His namesake Canute VI. supported his father-in-law Henry the Lion, Duke of Saxony, against the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, and in 1182 Denmark renounced its dependence on Germany. His sister was Ingeborg, the wife of the great French king Philip Augustus, whose divorce of her brought him into serious conflict with the great Pope Innocent III. Canute made the dukes of Mecklenburg and Pomerania his vassals and conquered Holstein. His successor Valdemar II. made Denmark for a time the leading power in northern Europe but he was defeated in 1237 in the battle of Bornhövede and lost his Baltic empire. In the latter half of the fourteenth century Valdemar IV. seized the island of Gothland and plundered the great Hanseatic emporium Wisby. This involved him in a disastrous war with the Hanseatic League in which the League came out victorious. It was Valdemar's daughter Margaret who brought about the Union of Kalmar in 1397.

There is little that is noteworthy in the history of Sweden before that date. Christianity was longer of being established there than in the other Scandinavian states. The nobles tried to prevent the kings from obtaining real power, and it was in consequence of the attempt of King Albert of the Folkungar dynasty to weaken the power of the nobles that the Swedes offered the crown to Queen Margaret. It may be noted that both in Denmark and in Sweden, where the monarchy was originally at least nominally elective, a great part of their later internal history is occupied with the struggle for power between the monarchy and the dominant nobles. In Norway on the other hand where the kingship was hereditary the nobility was of no importance, and Norway is now one of the most democratic countries in the world. The Swedes did not long continue satisfied with the new arrangement, and remained quiet only when they were governed by native viceroys. From 1470 to 1520 they were governed by regents of the name of Sture, brave and enlightened statesmen. Sten Sture, the elder, founded the University of Upsala and introduced printing into Sweden. In 1497 John II. of Denmark entered Stockholm and endeavoured to secure the submission of Sweden, but Sten Sture returned to Stockholm in 1502 and the Swedish revolt continued till 1520. In that year Christian II. who was determined to crush all opposition massacred all the leading men of Sweden—the notorious Bloodbath of Stockholm—but the Swedes rose against him, headed by Gustavus Vasa, the young son of one of his victims. At the same time his arbitrary measures produced a revolt in Denmark. He was driven from the throne and was succeeded by his uncle Frederick. Gustavus Vasa was chosen king of Sweden and the monarchy was made hereditary in his family. By the Recess of Malmö peace was made with Denmark, but Denmark retained the island of Gothland and the southern provinces of Sweden, thus commanding both sides of the Sound. The Reformation soon spread to Sweden. Gustavus Vasa became a Protestant and by the middle of the sixteenth century Sweden had become Lutheran.

The house of Vasa produced a number of remarkable monarchs, and during the three centuries that it occupied the throne Sweden reached the height of its power. For a short time, in fact, during the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, Sweden may be said to have been the leading power in Europe. Gustavus Adolphus is best known as the champion of German Protestantism in the Thirty Years War. His intervention in 1630 when the Emperor and the Roman Catholic cause were everywhere victorious turned the tide. His victory over Tilly at Bretenfeld in 1631 laid Germany at his feet and saved Protestantism. His untimely death at the battle of Lützen next year was a calamity probably for Germany as well as for Sweden. But before entering into the Thirty Years War Gustavus had fought with Denmark, Russia and Poland, and had succeeded in shutting out Russia from the Baltic by the annexation of Ingermanland, and had compelled Poland to cede Livonia and East Prussia temporarily. After the death of Gustavus his policy was continued by the chancellor Oxenstierna, and when the Peace of Westphalia was made in 1648 Sweden received a large part of Pomerania, and the Bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, thus commanding the mouths of the Oder, the Elbe and the Weser. Gustavus left as his successor an infant daughter who grew up to be the remarkable if eccentric Queen Christina. She abdicated in 1654 on becoming a Roman Catholic and was succeeded by her cousin Charles X. who tried to make the Baltic more completely a Swedish lake than it was. He so far succeeded that he compelled Denmark to give up the southern provinces of Sweden, and forced Poland to cede definitively Livonia and Earthonia by the treaty of Oliva in 1660.

In the great game that Louis XIV. played during the second half of the seventeenth century

Sweden was one of the powers whose friendship Louis courted for the purpose of harassing his German enemies on their eastern frontiers. The alliance with France led Charles XI. into a war with Brandenberg in 1675, and the defeat of the Swedes by the Great Elector at Fehrbellin in that year was an indication at once of the decadence of Sweden and of the growing power of Brandenburg-Prussia. When Charles XI. died in 1697 leaving as his successor the young Charles XII. the jealous neighbours of Sweden thought that the time had come for revenge and, a league was formed between Poland, of which the Elector of Saxony had become king, Peter the Great of Russia, and Denmark, to attack the youthful monarch. Charles XII. showed, however, that he possessed in full measure the soldierly qualities of his house, and he soon succeeded in defeating his enemies in turn. Though a great soldier Charles XII. was lacking in statesmanship and he allowed his hatred of Augustus of Saxony to make him neglect, till too late, his more dangerous Russian enemy. While Charles was pursuing Augustus from Poland into Saxony Peter was busy conquering the Swedish Baltic provinces and was laying the foundations of Petrograd in territory that still belonged to Sweden. When, too late, Charles struck at Moscow he was defeated in the decisive battle of Pultawa in 1709. Nine years later he was killed while fighting in Norway. When peace was finally made, Sweden lost Verden and Bremen to Hanover, part of Pomerania to Prussia, and the provinces of Ingermanland, Esthonia, Livonia and Carelia to Russia, and sank to the position of a second-class power in Europe. Finland remained to Sweden for nearly a century longer but in 1809, as a result of the re-arrangement of the map of Europe made by Napoleon and the Czar Alexander I. at Tilsit, it was conquered by Russia, and its annexation was confirmed by the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

The history of Denmark during those centuries must be dealt with very shortly. It is interesting to notice that the beginning of the famous Schleswig-Holstein question appears early in this period. Queen Margaret to conciliate the Count of Holstein—a county of the German Empire—granted him as a fief the Duchy of Schleswig. In 1448 when the royal house became extinct in the direct line, the Danes offered the throne to Adolf, Count of Holstein and Duke of Schleswig. He declined the crown but recommended the election of his nephew Christian of Oldenburg who was on the female side connected with the Danish royal family. Christian was duly elected and is the ancestor of the present royal house of Denmark. On Adolf's death without children Christian wished to acquire Schleswig and Holstein. The estates of these provinces ultimately in 1460 agreed to accept him as their ruler on condition that Schleswig and Holstein should remain united and that they should in future have the right to elect any member of the family and not necessarily the king of Denmark. Soon afterwards Holstein was made a Duchy by the Emperor Frederick III.

The Reformation in Denmark seems to have been carried through mainly with the object of securing the possessions of the Church for the nobility. During the period which followed, the power of the monarchy declined and Denmark was governed for over a century by a selfish oligarchy. The disastrous war with Sweden which ended in 1660 with the loss of all the Swedish provinces led to an outburst of national feeling which resulted in the overthrow of the power of the nobles and the establishment of a hereditary absolute monarchy. During these hundred and fifty years the most important event in the external history of Denmark was the attempt made by Christian IV. to intervene on the Protestant side in the second stage of the Thirty Years War. Tilly and Wallenstein proved too strong for him. Holstein, Schleswig and Jutland were overrun, and he was compelled by the Treaty of Lübeck 1629 to promise to abstain from interfering in German affairs as the price of recovering his lost provinces.

During the eighteenth century Denmark took little part in foreign affairs, but important reforms at home were carried out. In 1800, however, she joined the northern Armed Neutrality formed by Russia against Great Britain. This was treated as a declaration of war and led to the bombardment of Copenhagen by the British fleet under Parker and Nelson in 1801. Less excusable was the second bombardment which took place in 1807. Napoleon and Alexander had discussed at Tilsit the idea of compelling the neutral powers to join them against Great Britain. Napoleon especially counted on the use of the Danish fleet and was prepared if necessary to coerce Denmark to join France and Russia. To forestall him the British Government demanded that Denmark should make an alliance with Great Britain and should hand over the fleet for safe custody till the end of the war. The Danes refused and the second bombardment took place. The fleet was handed over but not unnatu-

rally the Danes became the allies of Napoleon till near the end of his career. Before that came Denmark was to lose still more of its power.

In 1810 Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals, was chosen by the Swedes as their Crown Prince. Bernadotte had risen from the ranks and had as a private served in India and been taken prisoner at Negapatam. When Napoleon's Russian expedition failed, Bernadotte and Sweden threw in their lot with the allies. As a reward for his services he was allowed to take Norway from Denmark and to annex it to Sweden as compensation for the cession of Finland to Russia. The Norwegians were much opposed to this change. They declared themselves independent, drew up a constitution and elected a king of their own. Ultimately, however, they were persuaded to submit. Bernadotte accepted the constitution, and the Norwegians then proceeded to elect him as their king.

The Treaty of Kiel (January 1814) by which Denmark had ceded Norway to Sweden and Heligoland to Britain provided that as compensation she should receive Swedish Pomerania and the island of Rügen, but this arrangement was not confirmed at Vienna. These places went to Prussia. Denmark received only the little Duchy of Lauenburg and a money payment. The settlement at Vienna, therefore, had as its result the serious diminution of the territory of Denmark, the uneasy union of Norway and Sweden, and the complete abandonment by Sweden of all possessions outside the Scandinavian peninsula, and of all influence in Germany. The union of the democratic Norway with the aristocratic Sweden did not prove a success. Bernadotte who became king under the title of Charles XIV. in 1818, and who is the ancestor of the present Swedish royal family, was personally popular in Norway, but the desire for independence steadily increased. Sometimes the kings yielded to the Norwegian demands and sometimes they resisted them, but steadily the Norwegians sought to make the union a merely nominal one. The end of it came in 1905 when the two countries wisely agreed to separate without fighting. The Norwegians elected as their king Prince Charles of Denmark, who is married to a sister of King George, and he ascended the throne with the title of Haakon VII.

While during the century that has followed the battle of Waterloo, Sweden has had little to do with foreign affairs, Denmark unfortunately for herself has been brought into too close contact with German politics owing to the Schleswig-Holstein question. Into that question it is impossible to go fully. It is said, indeed, that there was only one person who ever understood all its details. But the main points can be easily grasped. Holstein was a German Duchy and was a member of the German Bund or Confederation. Schleswig was Danish but had become largely Germanised especially in the south, and the two Duchies demanded that they should never be separated. The Danes in the middle of the nineteenth century were anxious to draw the union between Denmark and the Duchies tighter while the Duchies were anxious to be separated from Denmark altogether. In 1846 as the direct male line of the Oldenburg dynasty seemed likely to become extinct Christian VIII. issued a document in which he declared "the whole Danish State to be indivisible and to be heritable by females as well as males." This was very annoying to the Duke of Augustenburg who was the next heir in the male line, and also to the Duchies which had hoped to become a separate independent German state. Christian VIII. died in 1848. Europe was in a restless state at the time. National feeling in Germany had at last found expression, and though his son Frederick VII. issued a liberal constitution the Duchies rose and appealed to the German "Parliament" at Frankfort which enthusiastically espoused their cause. Thenceforward Schleswig-Holstein became a subject on which opinions as to German liberty and the like might be safely expressed even in Germany. For a time there was war, but at last in 1852 a Conference was held at London and a compromise was come to. The integrity of Denmark was guaranteed by the Great Powers, and the succession was promised to Christian of Glücksburg the heir in the female line. The Duke of Augustenburg surrendered his claims for a money payment. King Frederick granted a liberal constitution to his subjects and Schleswig and Holstein were allowed to keep their separate Estates or Parliaments.

During the next ten years national feeling ran high. A strong Danish party wished to see Schleswig, which was largely Danish, practically absorbed in Denmark, while the German party agitated for the separation of the Duchies from Denmark altogether. In 1863 King Frederick VII. granted a new constitution which separated Schleswig from Holstein and united it to Denmark. The German Confederation protested and threatened war. Just at this juncture Frederick died, and the new King Christian was compelled to accept the new constitution. Taking

advantage of the situation Frederick of Augustenburg revived the claim to the Duchies which his father had resigned at London. The Band or Confederation took up his cause and Hanoverian and Saxon troops entered the Duchies. Bismarck who had recently become Prime Minister of Prussia, and who had been busily engaged in flouting the Prussian Parliament and in strengthening the Prussian army, now intervened with his tortuous policy for Prussian aggrandisement. He had no desire to see Schleswig-Holstein formed into an independent German state under the Duke of Augustenburg, for it would almost certainly side with Austria against Prussia. He came forward therefore as the champion of the Treaty made at London in 1852 and persuaded Austria in an evil hour for herself to join him. Bismarck's policy during this period is a marvel of unscrupulous ingenuity. We have not space to follow it out in all its twistings. He succeeded in isolating Denmark and after a war in 1864 compelled her to cede Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg to Prussia and Austria. He repudiated the claims of the Duke of Augustenburg, and, when he was ready, picked a quarrel with Austria, defeated her and secured the whole of the plunder for Prussia. Northern Schleswig which is Danish was, it was understood, to be given back to Denmark, but this was never done, and Prussia's treatment of the Danes in Schleswig has been on a par with her treatment of the Poles in Prussian Poland. To trample down the conquered seems to be the only policy which commends itself to the Prussian official mind. It has been stated lately on good authority that Germany has actually had the audacity to complain to the Danish Government of the way in which the history of Denmark is taught in Danish Schools as giving a wrong impression of the history of the treatment of Denmark by Germany!

At present the Scandinavian countries are wisely preserving a strict neutrality. Sweden from fear of Russia was at the beginning of the war said to be pro-German, but it is difficult to believe that any of the smaller states of Europe, which value their national existence, can be anxious to see the triumph of Prussian militarism and the supremacy of Germany in Western Europe.

SWITZERLAND

BY PROF. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

THE history of Switzerland is probably associated in the minds of most people with the romantic if somewhat mythical stories connected with its beginnings. The legend of William Tell and his friends will continue to live if for no other reason because it contains a story of the struggle of a liberty-loving hill people against the oppression of a great feudal lord, and because it thus is the picturesque expression of the historical origin of the Swiss nation. Switzerland, which in the three national languages German, French and Italian is called *Die Schweiz*, *La Suisse*, and *Svizzera* respectively, takes its name from Schwytz, one of the Forest Cantons on the banks of the Lake of Lucerne. As in the case of Judaea, England, Scotland and India, the name of a part has come to be applied to the whole of the country. It may be noted that while we call the country the land of the Switzers we have adopted the French form of the word for the name of the people and call them Swiss.

Apart from its romantic character the history of Switzerland is of great interest to the historian. Switzerland is the earliest of existing federal states. In its history we have an almost continuous transmission of the federal idea from the middle ages to the present time. Sidgwick in his *Development of European Polity* points out that Switzerland and England are parallel in respect of continuity of development. The Swiss federation is to the federal type of state almost what England is to the unitary type. But there is this difference. England has been the model for other unitary states, but America and not Switzerland has been the federal pattern. The American constitution is in great measure modelled upon the English, and the present Swiss constitution has been largely influenced by that of the United States.

The history of the Swiss Federation begins with the union of the Forest Cantons, Schwytz, Uri and Unterwalden. These cantons originally

formed part of the Duchy of Swabia. When the line of the Hohenstauffen Dukes of Swabia became extinct their vassals, whether feudal lords or rural communities, held their lands directly from the Emperor, but the great lords tried to step into the vacant place and to bring their neighbours under their power. This was specially the aim of the Counts of Hapsburg who acquired large territories in Swabia, and aimed at reviving the title of Duke of Swabia. The Swiss Federation was originally merely a defensive alliance formed for the purpose of resisting the oppression of the feudal lords and especially of the Hapsburgs. The election of Rudolf of Hapsburg as Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 1273 turned the energies of the Hapsburgs into other channels to a considerable extent, and the different families which contended with the Hapsburgs for the imperial crown favoured the Swiss in their struggle for independence. The Emperor Adolf of Nassau who succeeded Rudolf recognised the League of 1291, and thus by 1309 the three Cantons were practically free. In the struggle between Lewis, the Bavarian, and Frederick of Hapsburg for the Empire the Swiss assisted Lewis. To punish them for this Leopold of Hapsburg led an army against them but was defeated at Morgarten in 1315. Lucerne joined the confederacy in 1330, and by 1353 Zug, Glarus, and the important cities of Bern and Zurich had also become members of it. The struggle with the Hapsburgs continued, but the battle of Sempach in 1388, in which another Leopold of Hapsburg was slain, put an end to the Hapsburg claims of over-lordship. Between 1353 and 1513 five other cantons joined—Schaffhausen, Freiburg, Solothurn, Basel and Appenzell.

In the latter half of the 16th century the Swiss came into conflict with Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who was seeking to establish a kingdom between France and Germany. Charles had obtained possession of Alsace and his great opponent Louis XI., 'the universal spider,' by his intrigues stirred up the Swiss to attack him. To punish the Swiss, Charles led an army against them but was defeated at Granson and Morat. The Swiss then proceeded to help Lorraine which he was seeking to conquer, and it was the assistance they gave that led to his defeat and death at Nancy in 1477. A little later the Emperor Maximilian tried to conquer them, but he too was defeated and was compelled in 1500 practically to acknowledge their independence. It was not, however, till 1648, when the Peace of Westphalia was made, that it was formally recognised that the Swiss Confederation was independent of the Empire.

By these victories the Swiss acquired great fame as soldiers. They were regarded as the best infantry in Europe and many of them went to serve as mercenaries abroad, especially in Italy. It was the fact that the victory which Francis I. of France gained at Marignano in 1515 was won over the Swiss which gained him such military renown at the beginning of his career. The Confederates also employed their military powers nearer home. As time went on they made conquests in different directions and acquired the five subject provinces Aargau, Thurgau, St. Gallen, Vaud and Ticino or Tessin. The Reformation which in Switzerland is associated with the name of Zwingli introduced religious differences and led to civil wars between the four conservative Forest Cantons and Zurich. By the Peace of Capel in 1531 it was agreed that each Canton should be allowed to settle religious matters in its own way. In 1597 Appenzell was divided into two parts owing to religious dissensions—Inner-Rhoden for the Catholics and Ausser-Rhoden for the Protestants.

Up till 1798 the Confederacy had been of a very loose character and was little more than a perpetual alliance among the Cantons, but in that year a great change was brought about. Some of the rural districts that were subject to the thirteen old Cantons were treated oppressively. In them there was much discontent and the French revolutionary movement was welcomed. In 1798 Vaud rose against Bern and a French army came to her aid. Ultimately the old Confederacy was defeated and abolished, and in its place was established a unitary state, the Helvetic Republic, one and indivisible. This was not popular, for the principle of federation was very strong in Switzerland, and in 1803 Napoleon by the act of mediation restored the Confederacy though with many modifications. The five subject territories were transferred into independent Cantons and the Canton of Grisons, or Graubünden, which was itself originally another league of rural communes, was added to the Confederation. It may be noticed in passing that Napoleon's unwillingness to recognise the independence of Switzerland was one of the causes that led to the rupture with Britain after the Peace of Amiens in 1802. The Congress of Vienna restored the old constitution and gave it an aristocratic tinge, but it recognised the status of the new Cantons. It also enlarged Switzerland by adding to it Neuchatel which had belonged to the King of Prussia, Valais which had been an allied state of the Confederation and Geneva to which some additions were made at the expense

of Savoy. Bern also received compensation for the loss of Vaud and Aargau by receiving the Bishopric of Basel and some other territory. At the same time the Five Great Powers guaranteed the neutrality of Switzerland. After some opposition the arrangements made by the Congress were accepted by the Swiss Diet.

A strong democratic feeling began to grow up in Switzerland which sought to sweep away the class privileges given by the Federal Pact of 1815. The French Revolution of 1830 gave a stimulus to the democratic movement, and in most of the Cantons new constitutions of a more democratic type were introduced and the country districts received better representation. In Basel where the conflict was keenest the Canton was finally divided into two parts or half-cantons, Stadt or Town Basel and Landschaft or Rural Basel. Before this division was confirmed by the Confederate Assembly in 1834 two leagues had been formed for mutual defence—seven of the more liberal Cantons forming the Siebener Concordat, while the Conservatives formed the Sarner Bund. The Canton of Schwytz attacked Basel Landschaft but was defeated, and the Sarner Bund had to be dissolved.

Matters were now further complicated by the introduction of religious differences. In 1841 at the canton of Aargau passed a measure abolishing the eight monasteries of that Canton. This was regarded as a breach of the Pact of 1815 and an appeal was taken to the Diet of the Confederation. A compromise by which only four monasteries were to be abolished did not satisfy the conservative Catholic Cantons, and in 1843 Uri, Schwytz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Freiburg and Valais formed a separate league—the Sonderbund—and proposed to secede from the Confederation. In 1847 war broke out and the Sonderbund was reduced. In 1848 a new constitution was adopted. The old state had been a confederation—a *Staatenbund*; the new one was to be a federation proper—a *Bundesstaat*—in which the power of the central government should be much greater than it had ever been before. The United States constitution was taken as the model, and democratic representation was made the basis of the federal constitution. The Federal Assembly was to consist of two chambers, and the American method of constituting the upper house was followed, by which each of the twenty-two cantons sent to it two representatives irrespective of its size. This constitution was revised in 1874. The powers of the Federal authorities were increased, and the democratic contrivance of the Referendum was introduced by which important measures have to be submitted to the direct popular vote.

Switzerland now forms an interesting example of a nation that has been wielded together out of different races speaking different languages by the forces of territorial contiguity, external pressure, and common economic interests. As has been indicated, it possesses three officially recognised national languages—German, French and Italian—and a fourth tongue, Romansch, is spoken in the Engadine. It is no doubt true that there are what may be called sub-national differences in Switzerland. It may be that at the present time the sympathies of the German-Swiss tend to be with the Germans and those of the French-Swiss with the Allies, but any attempt to violate the neutrality of Switzerland would soon show that first and foremost they are all Swiss.

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CONSTANTINOPLE

BY

PROF. J. NELSON FRASER, M.A.

TOWARD the end of July 1914, I left Odessa and crossed the Black Sea to Constantinople. "Black Sea," it is justly named, and no one need puzzle his head over the epithet, as peradventure a man may over the *Mare Rubrum*. Be it due to the muddy bottom or to some property of the water itself, even under a blue sky the Black Sea is a sort of steely colour, chilly and unlovely beside the azure of the Mediterranean. It was calm enough when I crossed it, and other conditions were propitious, for the steamer—a new one—was one of the most luxurious I have ever seen—built of course in Great Britain for a Russian Company. Charges proportionately high.

Almost before you know it you are gliding up the Bosphorus. Rambling hills on either hand, dotted with innumerable houses and villas, and occasionally crowned by a fragment of a Genoese or Turkish fortification. The scene is interesting, but it will not much move an experienced traveller. The architecture is all commonplace and the fortifications are not large enough to be imposing—at least from the deck of a passing steamer. Their dark history of war and crime, of intrigue and misery, may be partially known to a few experts, but the general reader is ignorant of it. There is nothing that possesses, say, the grandeur of Chillon or the place among immortal themes that Chillon owes to Byron's verse. The modern villas belong mostly to rich or noble Turks—the Khedive had one of them, that is to say, the Khedive of 1914.

Constantinople proper you do not see till you reach the Golden Horn. This is a small arm of the Bosphorus, running at right angles to it. Naturally you do not see it till you enter it, and then you find, quite suddenly, that you are in the very heart of Constantinople. The city occupies the low hills surrounding the Horn, so closely that there is not an inch of empty ground anywhere; you see nothing but tier after tier of houses rising above you. The effect is startling enough, especially as you come upon the scene so suddenly, but I quite decline to call it beautiful. The moment your eye lights on any particular building it is seen to be mean and hideous; a square block with square windows in it, the colour harsh and staring. The only objects that break the monotony are one or two fine mosques; there is also the Palace quarter, where a few towers are visible.

Turning your back on the Golden Horn and looking across the Bosphorus you perceive Gallipoli, which will not long interest you, as it wholly resembles Constantinople, without anything of historic interest to promise the explorer. The quay where steamers touch lies just at the junction of the Horn and the Bosphorus; it is small but sufficient for its purpose, and I had no trouble in landing and lodging myself at the Hotel Germania.

All the hotels lie up the hill on the north side of the Horn, in the quarter called Pera, which has always been the foreigners' place of residence. It is now an immense straggling region, with fairly good streets of a commonplace continental type. Here are situated the best shops of Constantinople, but compared with those of other European cities they are neither splendid nor interesting. There is an excellent system of cars placing all parts of the city in communication.

Constantinople of the Turks lies on the other side of the Horn, which is now crossed by a fine pontoon bridge. The caiques of ancient days have now vanished, their place being taken by a crowd of little steamers. This change is a great loss from the æsthetic point of view, as the steamers burn soft coal, which fills the Horn with dense suffocating smoke.

The buildings of the old city are a degree more interesting than those of Pera. Most of them are just the same in type and look as though fifty years might be the limit of their antiquity, but there are some picturesque little bits, where vines over trellised court-yards, and occasionally there is a fragment which speaks of the middle ages or even a remoter past. The streets are very narrow and crooked and lead nowhere, and even with Badecker's excellent maps much patience is needed to make your way about. This patience, however, at the time of my visit was

WHERE THE ALLIES ARE DRIVING TOWARD CONSTANTINOPLE.

WILLIAM'S NEW RECRUIT.

MOHAMMED: "Victory or Death!"
WILLIAM: "Let's divide the task; for you death; for me victory."

not tried by dirt or foul smells. The cleanliness of the whole city struck me as astonishing. I understand, of course, that this is an innovation; a few years ago the tourist's leading impression of Constantinople was one of dirt and dogs. Both to-day have equally vanished.*

Equally vanished is the Constantinople of remote antiquity. Whatever is left of it is presumably in part underground, for cities have a strange way of hoisting themselves on the shoulders of their predecessors; the most striking scene in this kind visible to-day is the Atmeidan. The Horse-Maidan, we Anglo-Indians would say; it was a Turkish place of exercise occupying the place of the Hippodrome. The reforming activities of recent years have turned it into a pleasant little garden, where the sacred relics which it enshrines are honoured with due care. The most ancient of these is the granite obelisk which Theodosius brought from Egypt; it was erected here on a pedestal, where he and his family are represented in their box at the circus. The visitor, probably more or less familiar with things Egyptian, will no doubt gaze with utmost curiosity on the pedestal, where the clumsy grouping of the Royal Family gives us no exalted idea of the Court or their art.

More moving in its interest is the bronze pillar which once supported the tripod at Delphi consecrated by the Greeks after their victory at Plataea.

Round the pillar are carved the bodies of three snakes, whose heads were struck off by Mahmud when he entered the city in 1453. Thus what is left is now (as usually) but a fragment of the past; it serves no other purpose than to make the past for a moment real. Our early acquaintance with the past being founded on books, our first sight of the actual relics of antiquity brings with it a pleasing shock of conviction and reality. Of course under other circumstances this experience might be connected with literature. In India, for instance, where all great monuments are vaguely ascribed to the Pandus, we miss the sense of connection with their authors which we should derive from some written historical record of their origin.

No doubt there are many small traces of the Byzantine age which the eye of the trained archæologist would detect, but for the tourist these do not exist, and when he has surveyed the Atmeidan he had better turn at once to the Museum. This is a large and very creditable institution, where the only trace of the old Turkish spirit is that you are not allowed to take notes. I almost wished that the authorities had something better to look after, so painstaking was their care of many insignificant fragments of antiquity. Destiny, however, has only committed to them one first rate treasure, the Alexander Sarcophagus. It was once thought to contain the clay of the great Emperor himself, but this is now known to be out of the question. It is a marble structure, with deep reliefs on every side, the figures being comparatively small and pictorial as much as plastic in their effect. On two sides there are battle-scenes of Persians and Macedonians, on two others hunting scenes. The most successful is one of the battle-scenes, and it is one of the finest pieces of Greek art in existence. The drapery, the flesh, the pose and the action all show the unapproachable grace and charm of Greece; it is strange to find them associated with a scene of cruelty and bloodshed. But you can hardly think of it as a battle piece—not at least till you have quite forgotten its artistic qualities or take them simply for granted. This, for me at least, in the moment of my arrival, was impossible, for I came from Japan, where I had learned to worship—as I did then and do now—the art of Mongolia; but there is nothing in it to eclipse Greece, and it was a kind of renaissance on entering the Turkish Museum—where I expected nothing of the kind—to find myself face to face with a masterpiece of Athens.

We return once more to art and architecture. By the Atmeidan stands the famous mosque, once the Church of Aja Sophia, Hagia Sophia, the Divine wisdom of Christian theology. It makes but a poor impression from the outside, like all Byzantine architecture. The minarets are tall and graceful and like the minarets of other mosques they lend one—the only—poetic touch both to the building itself and the masses of the architecture of Constantinople. This unimposing character of the exterior makes the first step into the building all the more striking; you are quite overwhelmed by its grandeur, its far-reaching tremendous lines and the extraordinary impression of finality that it makes. I think myself there is always som[illegible] [illegible]ression about the [illegible] enduring of all [illegible] [illegible]se it is pre- [illegible] There are

* The dogs' lives were spared but they were transported to an unoccupied island where, through some oversight of Destiny, they were starved to death.

Bacon somewhere remarks on the charity of the Turks towards animals; it was at Constantinople th[illegible] Christian boy "had like to have been put to [illegible] that in a waggishness he gagged a long-bille[illegible]

round arches and colonnades forming the side-walls of Santa Sophia, the great dome is round, and a great sense of harmony pervades the whole interior. No less is it pervaded by a strong impression of antiquity, the colour of the stone being deepened and mellowed by the flight of centuries. Mahommedan ritual has not much changed the general appearance of things; there is of course no Christian altar, and in the empty apex a mihrab has been cut in the wall; a few stone pulpits are scattered about, and that is all. The mosaics have been damaged and partially obliterated.

Other mosques in Constantinople have all been framed on the lines of this, and as this was the first I visited, the others did not much impress me. Without much expectation I came therefore to the Suleimanie Mosque, reading unmoved in Baedeker that it was built by an Albanian in 1550, with the especial design of excelling Aja Sophia in its own style. This did not seem at all likely, and mere imitation of any work of art, no matter how successful, moves no spectator to great admiration. But what was my amazement, on surveying the building, to find that the architect had indeed fulfilled or at least justified his proud attempts; the Suleimanie not only fears no comparison with its great predecessor but even in some small points excels it. In some details of the pillars and arches within it seems to me more perfectly successful, and whether this opinion be right or not at least there can be no doubt of its supreme success. Of course I am well aware that to deliver a verdict on such great buildings from the impressions of a single visit is presumptuous. To appreciate and judge them with discretion you must wander about them and sit in them for many hours, or many days, even through many years, but when this is out of the question one must offer a first impression for what it is worth. And though Aja Sophia has more tragic memories and occupies a vaster space in history and in the thoughts of men, still, if I had but a day in Constantinople again I should first return to the Suleimanie.

Be it observed that I had nine days in Constantinople on this visit, but they were not days of philosophy and calm inspection of monuments. On the contrary it was just during those days that the Great Powers ... declarations of war agai... the largest cali... echoing r... epoch. I... at least as possible the ruin of Constantinople and Santa Sophia, and I felt as it were laid upon us the duty of seeing them before they perished—but I had also to get myself away in good time and there was a serious question of funds, for all my money was in Russian notes and nothing was negotiable. Thos: Cook was besieged by distressed tourists, clamouring for money and unappeased by the sympathy which was all he could offer them. I found myself reduced to a meal a day, my excursions circumscribed and even my thoughts disagreeably pre-occupied. Finally, Cook squeezed out a little gold, a compatriot changed a note, and an Italian boat—the *Capri*—blessings on its name—took me and a vast crowd of other fugitives to the Piraeus.

I anticipate, however, and before I deal with the parting scene I will speak of the population of Constantinople.

Gone, for ever, I may say, is the gorgeous past. A trace of it passed before my eyes in a little book of pictures, which I bought from a Turkish hawker on the quay. Here are types of all officials and functionaries of the Sublime Porte, in the days of its haughty splendour. There were no tourists in those days, but how they would have feasted their eyes on the many coloured turbans and robes by which the Sultan's retinue made themselves known, each in his degree, Grand Vizier, Policeman, high or low, mute or eunuch, Scribe or Judge. Now all but a dream. No crowd haunts the Palace Doors; the Sublime Porte, like the Castle of Bombay, is but an official phrase.

Even the common dress of old Turkey, the baggy trousers and turban, are seldom to be seen in the city, though I saw enough of them among the soldiers that were mobilised. Educated Turks all wear European dress, the fez alone proclaiming the Mussulman, though the fez itself is misleading, since many Armenians wear it. But monotony of dress would not prevent the street crowd from being intensely interesting, if only you had a friend to explain it to you. Otherwise, it is impossible to tell whom you are looking at. The Turkish women do indeed, not a few of them, even to-day go about veiled, in solemn black dresses that inflame no stranger's passions. But many have taken to European garments and such cannot by a stranger's eye be distinguished from females of other races. And many races ...owd the streets of Constantinople; Greeks, ...s, Jews; Armenians and non-descripts from ... of South-Eastern Europe. Black eyes

and complexions cream or sallow are common amongst them all. So, too, in Constantinople is stylish dress. The very poor presumably keep to their own quarters, for I saw little of them and beggars are no longer allowed in prominent places. Perhaps they have been provided for elsewhere, like the dogs; I know not.

The good humour of the populace struck me very much—considering what a crisis prevailed. There were struggling crowds at the banks—struggling for nothing!—and crowds at the bakers' shops struggling for bread. But there was no loud talking and no quarrelling. Even the soldiers, French, German and Turkish, all leaving to fight each other, all agreed not to quarrel in the streets of Constantinople. I think it must have been present to every one's mind what fearful scenes might be enacted if disorder once began there, with countless thousands of ancient enemies face to face and no police force of any size to restore order. Things might easily develop into a massacre unprecedented in the whole history of bloodshed. I at least thought so, and perhaps others; at any rate the whole crowd showed itself wonderfully quiet and self-controlled.

But where amidst them all was the veritable Turk? To see him was indeed my chief desire in visiting Constantinople. For he is not the least part of the great question, what is Europe and what is Asia? Who then is the Turk? It is not easy to spot him even in Constantinople, not even in a mosque, for many visitors from Central Asia draw themselves up in line among the Turkish believers in the mosques. Perhaps the Turkish regiments afforded the best chance of discerning the Turkish features and if this be so, and if my own judgment is correct, then (i) the Turk is a white man, (ii) his features are something like those of old-fashioned Scotland. It would not follow that the Turkish invaders of the fifteenth century wore the same features, for (i) natural features change from age to age, (ii) there has no doubt been a great mixture of foreign, even of European blood, amongst the Turks. Nevertheless I venture on these conjectures as not impossible:—(i) the Turks never were a Mongolian people: (ii) they are closer allied to the Persians than to the Mongols; (iii) but closer to the white than to the sallow or olive coloured races (remembering indeed that these white races should rather be called "florid," and that the white races, as opposed to the brown, should be divided into sallow and florid). Probably the ancestors of the Hungarians were not very different from those of the Turks, though in Europe they have become their determined enemies. What stepped in between them was the Christian religion, and later the growth of political and moral freedom ("individualism") in Europe. This last is the chief dividing line between Europe and Asia, though it came very nearly being crossed by the Arabs; Ibn Khaldoun is more modern in tone than any European of his age. But it was never in sight among the Turks, though their character has some elements that appeal to the European, and the actual gulf between them and the European of the fifteenth century was comparatively small. The name of Christianity—for one doubts if much real difference in point of view lay beneath it—kept them apart, and incessant war hardened their mutual sentiment. Later on, the movement of the Revolution created a more real breach than anything that preceded it.

Turkey had its own Revolution a few years ago, and we know that her friends had great hopes of her future. Nor, if as judged by Constantinople alone, would those hopes appear groundless. There is no doubt that much has been gained in the administration of the city and real—probably permanent—progress has set in. It is in this country districts, as I am told, that the worst failings of old Turkey survive, the corruption, misgovernment and cruelty which made the name of the whole country a reproach. There is only too much evidence in support of these changes; but I think without being an optimist that there was plenty at Constantinople to encourage a hope that good influences might spread abroad and redeem the future. Unfortunately the Turks have taken the wrong turning in the war, so their opportunities for good or bad government are likely to be cut short.

I fancy that most tourists will carry away from Constantinople some kindly feelings towards the Turk. Whatever be his corruption in office, he is an honest man in private dealings, at least more holy than his neighbours in the Levant. Having been bred to a ruling part he does not practice importunities for *buckshish*, and if you treat him like a gentleman he does not impose on you. His manners and his speech are quiet, and I fancy he must be classed among the taciturn rather than the voluble of mankind.

Constantinople I left as one of the stream of refugees. Very thankful I was to find myself on the *Capri* surveying the quay behind me.

There were streams of country Turks mobilised for the great adventure, tramping in with their few belongings slung in bags about them, pressing forward to the depots where arms and uniforms were served out and thence onwards to the frontier. Most of them were young, but there were many grizzled heads to be seen and age itself was not spared. Nothing was spared. The cab horses were all seized, and I could scarcely get myself and my baggage transported to the quay. Turkey surely meant to strike that very moment and I cannot imagine now what held her back.

Eighteen nationalities crowded the *Capri*. She came from Odessa, and brought with her three Englishmen, escaped by a miracle from Baku. Then there were hundreds of fugitive Greeks, battered wretched people who ought on every ground of reason to have flung themselves into the sea, but far from doing so had made it the aim of their lives to multiply their kind. Many were going from Constantinople to Smyrna—no great change of misery. But people like these, born and bred to misery, do not seem to feel it; paradoxically, as one may say, they seem to be comfortable only in a state of misery. If, for instance, you could cure their sore eyes, they would be uneasy till they got them infected again. Endless bundles they carried with them; broken furniture, as cumbrous and unprofitable as Bardolph's late-case; in good sooth they were a "picturesque" crowd. Sleeping among them there was a Russian millionaire, with his pockets stuffed full of Russian notes. In the first class there was an American rich in gold, who gave half a sovereign to the boatman at Smyrna and peradventure came nearer being robbed and murdered than he imagined. I hope he got through to the Stars and Stripes all right. Then there were French and Italians, and heaps of Germans. I sat at table with eleven Germans and one Russian. We were all at war, yet, we were all good friends on that boat. Those Germans were all men of nearly forty years of age, dragged from their families and their business to danger and possibly to death and almost certainly to ruin, but their tone was cheerful and quite friendly to Great Britain. They were not Germans of to-day's Imperial mould but Germans of an earlier day, which no one esteems more than myself. We exchanged views a little, not losing sight of realities or forgetting our countries' causes, but joining in a hope that human nature would not be degraded nor human good feeling swept away by the coming struggle. Germany has done much in the last three months to bring about this disaster to Europe and the world, but I am glad to think my own last interview with the enemy was one from which (when they are scourged into penitence) I can draw strength against malice and catch a vista of reunion. In our dealings with our fellow-men it is always general views that foster enmity and cynicism, kindly feeling springs up between man and man. "I hate mankind," said Swift, "but I can make a shift to love Tom and Dick and Harry."

Swiftly the *Capri* turned from the quay, and glided out of the Golden Horn, and in a moment the myriad houses of the city, the mosques and the seraglio was lost to view. The voyage was not uncomfortable. The food was excellent. The passengers by common consent avoided all quarrelling and the horror of the scene disappeared in a kind of gaiety. We had an anxious day at the Dardanelles, where the Turks for twenty-four hours refused to pass us. Their attitude was variously interpreted by the passengers. Some opining they had lost a torpedo, others that nothing more was designed than to establish the power of Turkey. Anyhow, there we lay for a day, surveying the long hills that line the Strait, gaunt wildernesses, of no civilisation reminiscent or prospective. Next us was the *Saghalien*, crowded with French reservists, who had left Pera four days before, with much waving of tricolours and singing of the Marseillaise. Now they were Turkish prisoners—and I believe it was weeks before they escaped. We were luckier, for next day our release was sanctioned, and a tug was sent to guide us through the mines. We did not fail to follow her inch by inch, till at last she hooted in token of our security and we joyously hooted a triple note—at once acknowledgment and farewell.

Thence to the Piraeus. A moment's sensation, as the *Breslau* and *Goeben* raced past us; a little tedium at Smyrna and at last the Piraeus. Most of the passengers went on with the *Capri*, but I tumbled ashore and stepped forth to reconnoitre for another campaign.

The Neutral States of South-Eastern Europe

GREECE, RUMANIA, AND BULGARIA.

BY REV. E M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

AS the attitude which Greece, Rumania, and Bulgaria have adopted, and still more the attitude which they may adopt in the near future, with regard to the Great War, is naturally attracting much attention at present, a short sketch of the history of these three states may be of interest. They are all in their present form the outcome of the development of the spirit of nationality, the growth of which was such a marked characteristic of the nineteenth century, and which, along with Turkish misrule, has been the chief cause of the break-up of the Ottoman Empire in Europe.

Greece was the first of these little kingdoms to achieve independence. For more than three centuries it had been under Turkish domination, for soon after the fall of Constantinople in 1453 Muhammad II. effected its conquest. In the end of the seventeenth century when the Austrians drove the Turks out of Hungary across the Danube, their allies the Venetians succeeded in conquering the Morea and Attica, but they were unable to retain their conquests, and a century passed before the liberation of Greece took place. Curiously enough it was in Rumania that the revolt began. Moldavia and Wallachia had long been governed by Greek governors sent from Constantinople, and Ypsilanti, the son of a former governor of Moldavia, raised the standard of revolt at Jassy in 1821. The Rumanians, however, did not like the Greeks, and the Turks easily suppressed the rising. In Greece itself they were less successful. All through the Peloponnesus, or the Morea as it is now called, and in many of the islands risings took place, and Ali Pasha of Janina though a Muhammadan sided with the Greeks. In spite of massacres of the usual type the Turks were unable to suppress the revolt and had at last to call in the army of Mahomet Ali, the ruler of Egypt, to assist them. Athens was taken, the Morea was being conquered and ravaged, and it looked as if the Greek cause were hopeless. But much sympathy for the Greeks had been evoked in Western Europe, and though the Holy Alliance looked with disfavour on all national movements, the Czar Alexander I. began to take a friendly interest in them. Alexander died in 1825 and was succeeded by Nicholas I., whose interest soon took an active form. Canning, who was now Prime Minster in Britain, also favoured the Greeks, and an agreement was come to between Britain and Russia that Greece should be made into a tributary state. France joined the Alliance and by the Treaty of London made in 1827, a short time before Canning's death, it was agreed that the three Powers should insist that the war should cease at once, and that if the Porte did not agree soon to their proposals Greece should be made altogether independent. The three Powers sent their fleets to Navarino where the Egyptian fleet was lying, and called on Ibrahim Pasha to cease hostitities. One of the Egyptian ships fired, with the result that an engagement took place, and the Egyptian fleet was destroyed. The new British ministry regretted this as "an untoward event," but Nicholas proceeded to declare war by himself. The Turks were defeated and by the Treaty of Adrianople in 1829 the Porte agreed to recognise the independence of Greece. A Conference in London in 1830 settled the boundaries of the new state. It was decided that it should be a constitutional monarchy and in 1833 Prince Otho of Bavaria became king of the Hellenes.

King Otho did not prove to be a great success as a monarch. A revolt took place in 1862 and he was deposed. A new king was found in the person of Prince George, the second son of the King of Denmark and the brother of Queen Alexandra. He became king in 1863 and was murdered two years ago in Salonika shortly after the war. Soon after his accession Britain handed over to Greece the Ionian Islands over which she had exercised a protectorate since 1815. Greece was not satisfied with the amount of territory given to her in 1830, but during the Crimean War the Allies compelled her to keep quiet. When the Russo-Turkish War broke out in 1877, however, Greece joined the enemies of Turkey. The Powers at the Congress of Berlin recommended the Porte to rectify the boundaries of Greece and in 1881 she received most of Thessaly. In 1897 she again went to war with Turkey. On this occasion Crete was the cause of the war. Crete which was conquered by Turkey in 1668 is inhabited

chiefly by Greeks who wished to be united to Greece. Constant risings against the Turks took place in the course of the nineteenth century. Greece also desired the union and when in 1896 the Cretans again revolted Greece intervened to assist them. In the war of 1897 the Greeks were completely defeated by the Turks, and had to cede some territory and pay an indemnity. Crete, however, was made into an autonomous state under the protection of Great Britain, France, and Russia, with Prince George of Greece as High Commissioner.

Rumania was the next of the three neutral kingdoms to gain independence. Though later of gaining it than Greece, Rumania as a matter of fact never had come so completely under the control of the Turks as the rest of the Balkan Peninsula. Rumania is composed of the old Danubian Principalities, Moldavia and Wallachia and coincides to a considerable extent with the old Roman province of Dacia which Trajan added to the Empire in 106 A.D. The Rumanians claim to be a Latin people, the descendants of the old settlers of Dacia, and their language is certainly a Romance language though considerably modified by Slavonic influences. There has been a good deal of controversy as to whether the Vlachs or Wallachs are now really Latins, for their country was for centuries swept by countless hordes of invaders of different races. The more one investigates the question of race, the more one becomes convinced that purity of race is largely a fiction, at all events in countries that have experienced successive waves of invasion or migration. Persistence of language seems, however, to argue for the persistence of a race, and in all probability the Rumanians are as much entitled to be regarded as Latins as are many Italians, and are as much Latin in blood as many of the continental Greeks are Greek. Many of the Daco-Romans found shelter in the Carpathians, and when the force of the invading hordes of Slavs and Mongols was spent descended from the mountains as did the remnants of the Visigothic-Romans in Spain. In religion the Rumanians belong for the most part to the Orthodox, Greek Church.

The two Principalities came into existence about the end of the thirteenth century after the wave of Tartar invasion had receded. A Rumanian chief, named Rudolf the Black, came down from the Carpathians and established himself in Wallachia about 1290, and a few years later a Rumanian colony from Transylvania, headed by one Dragoche, settled farther north in Moldavia. In the course of the fourteenth century Wallachia became tributary to the Turks, but was allowed to retain its local independence. Moldavia being farther off remained independent till after the fall of Constantinople when it, too, had to acknowledge the Sultan as its suzerain. For a time it continued to enjoy practical independence but internal dissensions played into the hands of the Turks, and concessions were made by princes who wished to obtain the favour of the Sultan. John the Terrible, who became Prince of Moldavia in 1572, revolted against the Turks but was ultimately defeated and slain. His later contemporary Michael the Brave, who became Prince of Wallachia in 1593, was for a time successful in creating a "Great Rumania," for he brought under his sway Transylvania and Moldavia. The Rumanian spirit of nationality, however, was not yet strongly developed, and the Hungarian nobles hated him. Moldavia revolted; he lost Transylvania, and while trying to re-conquer it was treacherously murdered.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the condition of the Rumanians was very miserable. This was due partly to the bad system of government and partly to the wars caused by the ambition of Austria and Russia. The Princes or Hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia were appointed by the Sultan and were constantly changed. Until the revolt of Greece took place, the administration of Ottoman affairs was largely entrusted to the Phanariots—the Greeks who inhabited the Phanar quarter of Constantinople. Their influence became very great in the Principalities. All appointments implied intrigues and the payment of large sums to the Phanariots and the Porte, and the Hospodars recouped themselves for their expenditure at the expense of their subjects. The native nobles or *boyards* of course raised the national cry of "Rumania for the Rumanians," which in their mouths meant that they ought to be given offices and the opportunities for plunder which office meant to them, but the Phanariots continued to increase in power, and from 1716 to 1821 the Hospodars were always Phanariots.

When Russia began to appear above the horizon as a great power the Rumanians turned to her for help. In the Turkish war of 1711 Peter the Great entered the Principalities. He failed ignominiously to achieve anything against Turkey but his successors were more fortunate. It seemed for a time as if Russia under Catherine II. were going to annex the Principalities but Austrian jealousy prevented this from happening. The

Treaty of Kutchuk-Kaindardji in 1774, however, gave Russia an informal protectorate over the Principalities while it secured various privileges for their inhabitants. By way of compensation Austria in 1774 obtained Bukowina, the north-eastern corner of Moldavia, from the Sultan. In 1802 Russia increased her influence by making the Sultan agree that the Hospodars should not be removed without the consent of the Czar, and in 1812 obtained the part of Moldavia between the Pruth and the Dniester known as Bessarabia. This annexation was a great grief to the Rumanians and their experiences during the frequent occupations of their territories by Russian armies made them feel by no means anxious to become subjects of the Czar.

The revolt of Greece and the Treaty of Adrianople brought much relief to the unfortunate Rumanians. Henceforward they were to be ruled by native Hospodars who were to be appointed for life. They were to have complete internal independence and merely pay a fixed tribute to the Porte. On the other hand Rumania had become practically a Russian protectorate. In spite of this, however, Rumania now began to prosper and a genuine national feeling began to grow, largely under the influence of French ideas. The vision of a great Rumania, in which the Rumanians of Transylvania, Bukowina and Bessarabia should be united with Moldavia and Wallachia, began to appear—a vision which may have important consequences in the not far distant future. But two wars were still needed to unite and free completely the two Principalities. When war broke out between Russia and Turkey in 1853, Russia occupied the Danubian Principalities. This in due course led to the Crimean War. When that war was ended by the Treaty of Paris in 1856 the Russian Protectorate over them was abolished, part of Bessarabia was restored to Moldavia, and the two Principalities were to be allowed in future to have separate, independent, national administrations. Great Britain and France had wished that they should be united into a single state but Austria and Turkey would not permit this. But Moldavia and Wallachia took the matter into their own hands and solved the problem in 1859 by each of them electing Colonel Alexander Couza as their Prince. In November of the same year the united Principalities took the name of Rumania.

In 1866 Prince Couza was deposed and Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen—a cousin of the Royal family of Prussia—was elected. He reigned till his death in the autumn of last year when he was succeeded by his nephew Ferdinand. Under his rule Rumania prospered and succeeded in acquiring complete independence. In the Russo-Turkish War of 1877 the Rumanian army joined the Russians and gained great glory for itself at the siege of Plevna. By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 Rumania was declared to be independent of Turkey and in 1881 its ruler assumed the title of king. At the same time, however, Russia made a grave diplomatic mistake. She insisted at Berlin that Bessarabia should be restored to her and that Rumania should take in exchange the territory at the mouth of the Danube known as the Dobrudza, chiefly inhabited by Bulgarians. The Rumanians bitterly resented this renewed dismemberment of their country, and all the more that it naturally seemed a strange return for the important services their army had rendered. It is no wonder that this has been remembered by the Rumanians and has cooled any feelings of gratitude towards Russia that otherwise they might have felt.

While Rumania has thus been playing a prominent part in the political movements and intrigues as well as in the wars of south-eastern Europe for the last two hundred years, very different has been the case with Bulgaria, though that country occupied a much more distinguished position than Rumania did in the middle ages. Europe indeed knew little and cared less about Bulgaria and the Bulgarians until it was startled in the summer of 1876 by the gruesome accounts of "the Bulgarian atrocities." And yet at one time Bulgaria had been the leading power in the Balkan Peninsula and the Bulgarians had been the dread of the Eastern Empire. The modern Bulgarians are essentially a Slavonic people speaking a Slavonic language. In the fifth or sixth century A.D., the Serbs, or as we call them the Slavs, crossed the Danube and penetrated into the Eastern Empire. Some of them settled in the country south of the Danube now known as Bulgaria, while others went westwards and settled between the Danube and the Adriatic. These latter were the ancestors of the people who live now-a-days in Servia and Montenegro as well as in Bosnia, Herzegovina, Dalmatia, Slavonia, Croatia, and other parts of Austria-Hungary. The eastern Slavs who inhabited the old Roman province of Moesia were conquered by a Finno-Ugrian race called the Bulgars, but they succeeded in assimilating their conquerors though they

kept the Bulgarian name. In the ninth century they were Christianised by two brothers Cyril and Methodius. Cyril invented for them the adaptation of the Greek alphabet which is used in Russia and throughout most of the Balkan states, and which in honour of its inventor is called the Cyrillic alphabet. In the tenth century the Bulgarian Czars ruled over most of the Balkan Peninsula. In 1018 the Emperor Basil II. destroyed the Bulgarian Empire which had then reached the height of its power under its Czar Samuel. Basil in honour of his victories was called Boulgaroktonos, *i.e.*, the slayer of Bulgars. For a hundred and eighty years the Bulgarians were under the domination of the Greek Empire but in 1186 a popular rising under one John Asen lead to the revival of the Bulgarian power, and the Czar John Asen II, who reigned at Tirnovo from 1218 to 1241, made Bulgaria once again the greatest power in south-eastern Europe. His rule was one of prosperity for Bulgaria. He included in his dominions most of the Balkan Peninsula and he made the Church of Bulgaria independent of that of Constantinople, with a Patriarch of its own, With his death the glory of Bulgaria came to an end, and Serbia took the leading place. Early in the fourteenth century King Stephen of Serbia made Bulgaria a vassal state. The hostility of the two Slav states toward one another, and the dislike both of them felt towards the Greeks, prepared the way for the easy conquest of the Balkan Peninsula by the Turks. In 1389 the Serbian power was shattered by Murad II. on the fatal field of Kossovo. In 1390 Tirnovo was taken and sacked by the Turks, and for nearly five hundred years Bulgaria disappeared from the map of Europe.

During this period Bulgaria suffered a good deal at the hands of the Greek clergy as well as at those of Turkish pashas, and the Turks seeing in the Bulgarian dislike of the Greeks an opportunity of carrying out their favoured principle of government "Divide and Rule" ultimately allowed the Bulgarians to have an ecclesiastical organisation of their own with an Exarch at Constantinople independent of the Greek Patriarch, Thus nowadays religious differences help to separate Bulgarians from Greeks.

The "Bulgarian atrocities," to which reference has already been made, were the result of the quickening of national life caused by the insurrection in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1875. That rising led to restlessness among the Slav populations in Turkey. The atrocities were the work chiefly of irregular Turkish troops who were sent to Bulgaria to keep it quiet. They succeeded in extirpating a number of Bulgarians but it was a fatal success for Turkey. In 1876 Serbia declared war against Turkey and when she was defeated the European Powers intervened. Anxious though Great Britain had been to protect Turkey from Russia, she could not in the face of the Bulgarian horrors do much, and when Russia declared war against Turkey in 1877 and was joined by Greece, Serbia, Montenegro and Rumania, Turkey found herself without an ally. In the war itself Bulgaria took no part except that it was the scene of the most serious fighting between Turkey and Russia. When at last in the beginning of 1878 the victorious Russians were within sight of Constantinople the Treaty of San Stefano was made. According to it a great autonomous principality of Bulgaria was to be created, extending from the Black Sea to the Ægean and including most of Macedonia. Lord Beaconsfield insisted that the terms of this Treaty should be considered by the European Powers and to this Russia at last agreed. The Congress which met at Berlin largely modified the terms of peace. Bulgaria was divided, and only the part lying between the Danube and the Balkans was to be constituted an autonomous state while southern Bulgaria, known as Eastern Roumelia, and Macedonia were separated from it, and remained under Turkish rule. Bulgaria thus became a principality and Prince Alexander of Battenberg, a German prince of the House of Hesse, was made its first ruler. At first Bulgaria and its Prince were completely under Russian influence, but gradually Bulgaria began to find that it too had a national feeling, and Alexander fell under the displeasure of the Czar. In 1885 a movement suddenly took place in Eastern Roumelia which declared itself to be united with Bulgaria. In spite of opposition from interested quarters, the union was carried out, but as a result Serbia declared war against Bulgaria. To the surprise of Europe Serbia was beaten, and Austria which at that period posed as the patron of Serbia had to intervene. Shortly after this victory, in August 1886, Prince Alexander was kidnapped and carried off to Russia by the pro-Russian party, but Stambuloff, the great Bulgarian statesman, secured the control of the government and invited Alexander to return. The Prince did so but at the same time foolishly offered to abdicate if the Czar wished it. The Czar did wish it, and

Central News.

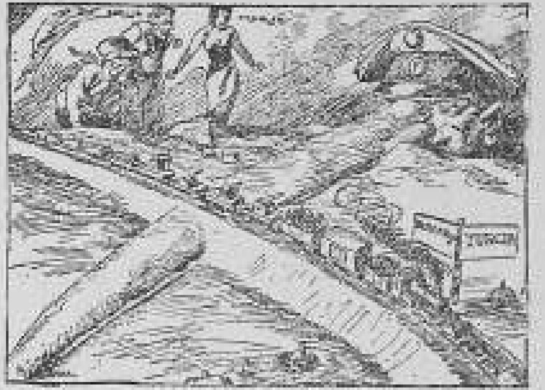
KING AND QUEEN OF GREECE

Right to left:—Prince Paul, King of Greece, Princess Irene, Duke of Sparta, Princess Helene and Prince Alexander.

Westminster Gazette.

OVER THE OLD GROUND.

The Shade of Napoleon: "I too want to Warsaw. I too had a Turkish Alliance, a Russian campaign, and—Waterloo!"



BULGARIA'S POSITION.

he had to go. All this naturally created a strong anti-Russian feeling in Bulgaria. Stambuloff and his fellow-nationalists now had to look out for another prince. Their choice fell on young Prince Ferdinand of the Saxe-Coburg-Gotha family who accepted the invitation in August 1887. Russia refused to recognise Ferdinand for eight years but at last did so. Before that happened, however, Stambuloff fell under the displeasure of Ferdinand and was driven from power. Shortly afterwards he was murdered in the streets of Sofia, and his murderers were left unpunished. In 1908 when the revolution took place in Turkey, Bulgaria declared herself independent and Ferdinand assumed the title of Czar of Bulgaria.

During the last thirty years, Macedonia, the Turkish province, lying between Greece, Serbia and Bulgaria, has been the chief storm-centre of Eastern Europe. In addition to Turks Macedonia contains Greeks, Serbians, Bulgarians and Vlachs or Rumanians. Each of the three countries bordering on it coveted it and was jealous of its neighbours in consequence. The Sultan Abdul Hamid was most successful in playing off the Balkan powers one against the other with the most disastrous results so far as Macedonia was concerned. When the Young Turks came into power in 1908, it was hoped that they might put an end to the anarchy in Macedonia, but it soon became apparent that their one idea of ruling was to turn all the different races in Turkey, whether Christian or Muhammadan, into Turks. They thus succeeded in making all of them, Muhammadan Albanians and Arabs as well as Greeks, Serbs, Bulgarians and Vlachs, hostile to their regime. The result was a hitherto unknown drawing together of the usually hostile Balkan states. An alliance was formed between Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro and in the autumn of 1912 war broke out between these states and Turkey. Greece had shown up so badly in 1897 that it was not expected she would distinguish herself, and there is good reason for believing that the Germanic powers permitted the war because they expected that the Turkish army now reorganised and armed by Germany would easily defeat its enemies. The opposite proved to be the case. The Greeks, the Serbians, and the Bulgarians all defeated the Turkish troops opposed to them. The Bulgarian army advanced to within a short distance of Constantinople, and the Turks sued for peace.

Before the war broke out the Great Powers to try to prevent it had told the three Allies that they would not be allowed to disturb the territorial *status quo*. The Allies had persisted in spite of this warning and now that Turkey had collapsed, the Powers found it to be impossible to carry out their threat. The re-arrangement of the map, however, was a very delicate matter for two reasons. First, the Allies had been much more successful than they had expected to be, and the arrangements as to the distribution of territory made before the war had to be modified. Second, some of the Great Powers had their own plans and ambitions which they did not wish to see thwarted. Austria and Italy, for example, had decided views of their own upon certain points, especially with regard to the seaboard of the Adriatic. Neither Serbia, Montenegro nor Greece, they maintained, must be allowed to encroach upon Albania, which must be created into a separate independent state. Austria-Hungary also was determined to do all she could to prevent Serbia from becoming a strong power and thus blocking her way to the Ægean, and there is now practically no doubt that when she saw that her way to the Ægean was being closed by the territorial acquisitions of Serbia she encouraged Bulgaria to attack her Allies, Serbia and Greece.

According to the arrangement made between the Allies Bulgaria was to have received a large acquisition of territory but now she claimed a great deal more than they were willing to give. She wished to have practically the whole of the Ægean coast including Salonika which Greece had conquered. Suddenly in the early summer of 1913 the Bulgarian armies without warning attacked those of her former Allies. "Pride goeth before destruction," and so it proved in the case of Bulgaria. Greece and Serbia proved more than a match for her, and her neighbours Rumania and Turkey took advantage of her distress. The Turks stole back to Adrianople in spite of the treaty which had just been signed ceding it to Bulgaria. Rumania moved her troops into Bulgaria, and announced that they would march on Sofia unless Bulgaria ceded some territory on the Danube including the strong fortress of Silistria. Bulgaria was brought to her knees, and by the Treaty of Bucharest she lost not merely the additional territory she had coveted but also much of what would otherwise have been hers as well as some of her original territory. By the treaties which ended the two Balkan wars the territory of

Greece has been much increased. A large part of Macedonia including the coveted seaport of Salonika has fallen to her share, and she has gained also Crete and a number of other islands,—how many had not been finally settled when the Great War broke out. She was prevented however from taking a part of Albania which she claims to be Greek, just as Montenegro in the north was prevented from retaining Scutari. The Albanians are neither Slavs nor Greeks but are a race by themselves being probably akin to the ancient Illyrians. They number about a million and a half and have a language of their own. Some of them are Christians, others are Muhammadans, and they are all an independent if somewhat lawless race. Albania, it was arranged, was to be a separate state with a Prince of its own and consequently in the name of the principle of nationality the Greeks and Montenegrins were warned off by the Powers. It will be remembered that a German princeling William of Wied was for a short time its ruler with the title of Mpret, but he has left his dominions and is said to have sought a quieter haven in the German army. Meantime to restore order, Greece has temporarily re-occupied part of southern Albania, while Italian troops are taking care of Valona.

It cannot be said that the Treaty of Bucharest is likely to be a permanent settlement of the Balkan question. It has placed Bulgarian populations under Greece, Serbia and Rumania, and Bulgaria is certain to try to upset it sooner or later. If she is wise she will seek to come to an understanding with her former Allies and with Rumania, and to settle things in a peaceful manner. If, as seems probable, Austria-Hungary will after the war have to give Serbia and Rumania part of the Hapsburg lands inhabited by Serbs and Rumanians, these two countries might quite well be expected to restore to Bulgaria what are really Bulgarian lands. The trouble with regard to nationality in the Balkans is that the different states—like the American lady in Laurence Oliphant's story who always felt *so* democratic to those above her—feel the principle of nationality very keenly only when they are claiming for themselves lands inhabited by people of their own race. When unfortunately a population on coveted territory is an alien one, then the principle of nationality gives place to that of territoriality, and too often this has led to the "removal" of the aliens. Bulgaria is doubtless at present closely watching the course of events. She must be swayed by conflicting motives—hatred of Rumania and her late Allies, gratitude to Russia and yet fear of her, dislike of Turkey, fear of Austria-Hungary. Weakened by two wars and conscious of the fact that Austro-German domination in the Balkan Peninsula would mean ultimate ruin for the nationalities there she will probably sacrifice her revengeful feelings to her manifest self-interest and seek by remaining neutral to gain some reward when peace is made.

It is said indeed that in all three countries the people are strongly in favour of joining the Allies and that they are being held back by their Governments. It is not surprising that the Governments of Greece and Bulgaria, countries which have just passed through two exhausting wars, should seek to maintain their neutrality. It is difficult to see how Rumania can continue to do so. In the recent Balkan struggle she took no part till towards the end when without fighting she secured a large slice of territory. But circumstances are different now, and if Rumania does not come in as a combatant she may find that her territorial ambitions will receive no recognition. I have already indicated what these ambitions are. In Transylvania, Bukowina, and Bessarabia there are millions of Rumanians and the Rumanian patriots dream of a Great Rumania containing over eleven million inhabitants and uniting under a national government all these scattered fragments of the Rumanian race. Only with the help of Russia can this dream be even partially realised, and it will be surprising if in the course of the next few months Rumania does not seek to gain the freedom of her compatriots in Transylvania who have so long been suffering from the domination of the Hungarians, and if she is not found ranging herself on the side of the Allies in the great European struggle for the freedom of nationalities and of nations.

ETHICS OF WAR IN MUSSULMAN INDIA

BY

MR. S. V. VENKATESWARA AYYAR, M.A.,

LECTURER, KUMBAKONAM COLLEGE.

WE propose in this article to deduce, as far as possible, from details culled from political history those unwritten rules and principles which actuated the dealings of our Mussulman rulers in their wars with each other and with their neighbours of other creeds.

CAUSUS BELLI.

Various causes contributed to the wars of Islam in India. Desire for sea-trade and land-empire was probably the main cause in the earliest times. The invasions of the 11th century aimed at booty and plunder and at the glory of iconoclasm. Later wars were due to lust of dominion. Their results ripened into the Afghan kingdom of Delhi and the Mughal empire of Hindustan. During the same period the desire for the profits of the sea-borne trade of India actuated the settlements of the Muhammadans in Malabar and their wars with local Rajahs there and with the Portuguese new-comers. It is true that the one great element in these wars was the iconoclastic zeal and desire to make converts. But the force of religion has been greatly exaggerated. The colonies of Mussulman Arabs in Sindh set up a government there, which was as remarkable for religious tolerance as it was for economic efficiency. The descendants of Arabs and Moorish settlers in Malabar displayed their fanatical zeal against the fanatical Portuguese, but they had been living for long ages in that part of the country respecting the religious customs and usages of the Malabarians. Secondly, in addition to wars between the Faithful and the Infidel, there were also wars between one sect of Muhammadans and another. When a Sunni ruler made war on a Shiah king, the Shiah soldiers in the employ of the former seldom showed any scruples in fighting with brother-Shiahs in the army of the latter. Even men of the same sect thought little of slaughtering their fellow-religionists when their leader had to wade to the throne through slaughter and civil war. Nor can it be said that these wars were more conspicuous for humanity than the wars of the Islamites with men of alien faiths.

COMBATANTS.

The ethics of warfare largely depend on the formation of a class of combatants subjected to drill and discipline, and the control possessed over them by those responsible for the conduct of hostilities. The armies of the period consisted of a sort of feudal array, of bands of mercenaries engaged from time to time, and of a national militia recruited in rare cases by compulsory enlistment. Every Jaghirdar was bound to bring into the field a definite number of troops in accordance with the rank of *mansab* held by him. European travellers like Bernier state that in important campaigns the people at large were bound to follow their ruler. Mercenaries were freely employed, especially in the declining days of Mughal rule, and they had no stomach for hard or consistent fighting. It was difficult to maintain the rules of war in a motley array whose pay was mostly in arrears. The infantry were a despised force. There were a few picked troops round the person of the king or emperor; the rest were a mere rabble of foot soldiers and camp followers. The fate of a battle depended on the conduct of the cavalry and the elephants of the line.

Discipline in the Mughal army, already despicable in the eyes of Sher Shah, was hopelessly at fault in the days of Khafi Khan. Army organisation was defective too as the troops belonging to the noblemen could not be easily got under and kept in co-ordination subject to the orders of the central controlling power. The absence of a chain of subordination among the sectional commanders was felt soon after a battle began. Absence of instruction in tactics must be held to account for the small number of officers as compared with the men in the Mughal army lists. The fall of the Mughal empire was mainly due to these military difficulties. Such as

they were, any effectual check on the horrors of war on the field of battle must have been difficult in most cases.

WEAPONS OF WAR.

There is hardly any evidence of restrictions as regards the employment of instruments in warfare. The sword, spear and javelin, were in ordinary use, but fighting was done also without such instruments. The army contained gladiators, wrestlers and boxers, besides flingers, miners and mariners. It was obviously contrary to etiquette to attack an unarmed person with the aid of weapons or for a third person to interfere when two were engaged in hand-to-hand combat. Mussalman gunnery was more efficient than that of the Hindus, thanks to the attention paid to artillery by the Turks and Egyptians. The guns shot not merely shot and shell aimed at the life of the enemy, but materials calculated to inflict torture on the flesh. Lead, rockets, explosives and Naphtha balls are mentioned by Mussalman writers of the Afghan period. Turks of the eleventh century seem to have used a 'magic stone which raised a thick fog to cause confusion in the ranks of the enemy.' But these are rare instances. Warfare was conducted as a rule with the ordinary instruments, not prohibited by the modern rules of international law.

METHODS OF WARFARE.

It cannot be said that with the Muhammadans warfare was a 'game governed by elaborate rules' as it was among the Hindus in ancient and medieval times. But a recent writer goes too far when he says that the Mussalman soldiers were altogether unhampered by these rules of war. It is true that night-fighting and ambuscades were not plainly forbidden by the law and practice of Islamite nations even in Mughal times. Nor can it be said, as of Hindu warfare, that the men of the contending armies were comrades and companions till the beat of drum drew them apart and after its resounding stopped the military operations of the day. But these are instances where an invading army thought it its duty to give the enemy warning of its intended approach, and where peaceful negotiations were tried before hostilities were formally declared. Fighting was in most cases in the open plain and carried on in a bold straightforward fashion. There was a great measure of chivalry in many of the wars. It may be said, on the whole, that the open fighting of the Mughal army stood in contrast to the guerilla warfare and sharp reprisals of the Mahrattas. Ruses and stratagems were doubtless employed on both sides. Instances there are where the surrender of an enemy was hastened by poisoning the wells and vitiating their food and drink, but these dishonourable devices were very rarely used, indeed.

ENEMY PERSON.

Scanty regard was shown to the person of the enemy. It is true that soldiers who applied for quarter were granted their request in normal cases. Barani specially mentions the fact that Alauddin refused quarter to the Mongol invaders. But Mughal conquerors even the best of them took an inhuman pride in erecting pyramids of the heads of the fallen enemy. Captured spies of course suffered a cruel death. Captured rebels were impaled or put to death with excruciating torture. It must be borne in mind, however, that we are speaking of medieval times when horrors of war were great among other nations as well. Purchas says of Akbar's empire that "there is no instance in the world's history of such a kingdom having been won not only with so small an amount of human suffering but with so positive a relief from oppression." This language of exaggeration, certainly contains an element of truth and may be made much of by one ambitious of obtaining a comparative estimate.

ENEMY CHARACTER.

Enemy character was acquired not merely by those who fought in the field but by their family and dependents. The capture of women and children belonging to the combatants was an unknown thing till the time of the Khaljis. But it became the fashion in later times that the women should pass into the harem of the conqueror and sometimes be sold into slavery with their children. The great Akbar introduced a change for the better in this respect. In the seventh year of his reign he ordered that the wives, children and dependents of captives taken in war should be free from molestation and be neither sold nor kept in slavery according to the practice then in vogue. "If the husband pursue an evil course, what fault is it of the wife? And if the father rebel, how can the children be blamed?" It is difficult to determine, however, to what extent this counsel of perfection was carried into execution. That women and children were captured as prisoners of war is clear in the chronicles. The Tarikh-i-Alfi mentions an instance in the year 1567 and the Tabakat-i-Akbari in 1581. The lands and effects of an

enemy also acquired enemy character. Wholesale sack of villages and pillage of towns were some of the incidents of warfare. But it was always recognised that the land of non-combatant agriculturists should be immune from the disturbance consequent on warlike operations. One of the maxims of Sher Shah was: "If we drive away the agriculturist, all our conquest are but of little profit." Though commercial activities between belligerent states were suspended during the war, this was no bar to the exercise of commercial rights by dealers in the necessaries of life. The Brinjaris had their rights of property and trade respected by the belligerents.

PROPERTY IN WAR.

All the property of the enemy state and its subjects was the lawful prize of the conqueror. But the best of rulers never sanctioned plunder and pillage by the soldiery. Booty acquired by individual soldiers generally belonged to themselves. Even neutral territory was not exempt from violation, unless there was an agreement to the effect before the commencement of the war. As regards cultivated lands in the vicinity of the camps, they enjoyed protection in Mughal times. The state took steps to make this protection effectual. "Trustworthy men were appointed to carefully examine the land after the camp had passed and were ordered to place the amount of any damage done against the Government claim for revenue." "Sometimes even bags of money were given to these inspectors so that they might at once estimate and satisfy the claims of the ryots and farmers." In the land of the enemy the residence of the Ulama, the Sayyids and Holy men alone were exempt from devastation. The temples and other places of infidel worship were mostly plundered or razed to the ground, and mosques built on the ruins. One broad exception has, however, to be made. The Mongol race has shown in history a surprising regard for the artistic traditions and products of the countries conquered by the sword. Though instances of vandalism may be easily cited, they did not go so far as may be imagined. Their objects were less the noble works of architecture and sculpture than the fine specimens of the iconographer's art.

TERMINATION OF WAR.

War had a glorious end when it was terminated by a treaty. The conqueror addressed the conquered as son and the latter reciprocated the relationship. Then presents were exchanged, tributes offered or insisted on and hostages demanded in the case of adversaries not thoroughly subjugated. This mode of ending warfare was more exceptional than usual. In most campaigns the idea seems to have been that war ended only when one of the sides was beaten into effective submission or political annihilation. The commander of a fortress or a city who surrendered to the besiegers was usually allowed to march out with his family and effects. But there were numerous exceptions to this rule.

The conqueror took possession not only of the lands and estates of the conquered but in many cases of his women and personal belongings. Every successful campaign meant an addition to the harem of the victor. A fifth of the land taken in war was the legitimate share of the conqueror by the law of Muhammed. As regards the men of the locality, they were generally allowed to remain, if they were agriculturists; otherwise they were liable to be driven out or enslaved. They could be subjected to the *jazia* or poll-tax if they were not of the faith. But little else was changed in the land by the new masters. Peaceful commerce revived with redoubled vigour owing to its suppression during the continuance of hostilities. The life of the Indian village went on as of old and even such changes as were attempted were of hardly any political significance. As Sir W. Hunter puts it, "the Muhammadan conquerors never succeeded in really forcing their system on the races of India."

CONCLUSION.

Such were the rules of warfare, so far as one could generalise from the facts of military history. Local customs were, doubtless, divergent; and rules which were in vogue at one time were discarded by a later generation. There was nothing of the nature of an 'International Law,' which nations felt themselves bound to observe. But recent events lead us doubt whether the present times are really far ahead of the medieval. Of what avail is the work laboriously done in the 'Palace of Peace' at the Hague when the Halls of Kultur rejoice over the sinking of the 'Falaba,' glory in acts of submarine piracy, and applaud the massacres of Louvain and Dinant, of Aerschott and of Senlis?

THE DANGER OF DRAWN WARS

BY PROF. H. P. FARRELL.

At the time of writing—April 12—it may be taken as absolutely certain that the German offensive is at an end. In the west they will not advance another step. If in the terrible days of October and November they failed to pierce the allied line, notwithstanding all the advantages which numbers, long and careful preparation, splendid equipment, and a plentiful supply of all munitions gave them, how can they hope to do so now, when all these advantages are being steadily transferred to the Allies? Even the staunchest and most confident German soldier regards the position in the west only as a stalemate. Paris therefore is safe, and so is all of fair France that has escaped the terrible hand of the invader. Similarly England need have no fears—if she ever had any—of an invasion. If the German fleet declined to fight in the early days of the war when it was relatively stronger than it is to-day, there is an ever increasing reason why it should now view the prospect of a battle with just as much disfavour. If it does come out and fight, the chances are overwhelmingly against it, but it is more than likely that the fleet will be kept intact as a valuable asset in the inevitable haggling which will precede the signing of the treaty of peace. The sinking of English merchant vessels by German submarines will doubtless continue. We may even hear of more aerial raids on the English coast, although since our sailors and airmen have given the enemy something to think about at Zeebrugge, these raids seem to have ceased. Nevertheless they may occur again. But these air-raids, and the so-called submarine blockade are not part of an organised offensive—or if they are, then it is the feeblest and most foolish offensive ever undertaken. Rather they are to be regarded as the spiteful and vicious blows of defeated and disappointed men.

Similarly on the eastern frontier the Germans have shot their bolt and it has failed of its mark. The last great effort against Warsaw from the north has proved fruitless. A portion of Russian territory has been occupied, but here, as in the west, it may be said "thus far and no further."

As for the allies of the Germans, so far from taking the offensive, they are hard put to it to maintain themselves against the attacks of the Allies. It is long since we heard of any attack by the Austrians against Servia. They are barely holding their own against the Russians in the Carpathians. The Turkish movement in the Caucasus has been decisively checked. The attack on Egypt was never anything but a futile demonstration. The head of the Persian Gulf is in British hands.

Similarly throughout the Empire—in South Africa, in Egypt, in India, the emissaries of the German government have done their worst. Trouble has certainly been stirred up, but it has been suppressed owing to the staunch loyalty of all parts of the Empire and the wise and prompt measures of the Imperial and other governments and no result has been achieved.

But it does not follow that because our enemies have reached the limit of their offensive, that we may breathe freely, and declare that all danger is at an end. On the contrary, never throughout the war has there been a juncture when it has been more necessary to set our shoulders resolutely to the wheel and to permit of no relaxation of our efforts until the task that confronts us has been completely achieved. We are opposed to an enemy who not only fights valiantly and efficiently in the field, but also insidiously and unscrupulously in diplomacy, and it is in this latter kind of warfare that we must now be on our guard.

If the German offensive has now come to an end it is equally certain that the forward movement of the Allies has not yet begun. Suppose the war were to come to an end now, what would be the position? The Germans hold Belgium—all but a few square miles—a considerable portion of the fairest and wealthiest districts in France, and eastern Poland. Opposed to this, the Allies hold Galicia and some of the less important German colonies. Not a single square mile of German territory is at present occupied by the Allies. Is not the balance immeasurably in favour of the Germans? What then? Well, it is the task of the Allies to throw the enemy back until he is at last driven to make a stand for the defence of the Fatherland, and then to carry on their offensive movement until the Germans themselves shall feel the horrors of the warfare wherewith they have

devastated their neighbours, and so at last shall be driven to sue for such terms of peace as the Allies shall be disposed to grant them. We are only now beginning to realise the magnitude of this task. There are two ways in which it may be accomplished. The first is to make a terrific onslaught on the German lines both east and west, and to drive the enemy back step by step by sheer hard fighting. This can be done, but the mind shrinks from contemplating the awful loss of life and bloodshed which such an attack entails. Shall we find our attack on the German trenches any easier than that the Germans themselves did when they attacked the British position, for instance, at Ypres? And it is to be remembered that the Germans have had ample time to prepare a series of entrenched positions behind their outlying defences, culminating in the grand series of fortifications behind the Rhine. All these positions can be carried. Probably when once the Germans have commenced their retrograde movement, and are in consequence dispirited, and it may be, demoralised, the successive attacks of the Allies will be easier of accomplishment than the first. Nevertheless the casualties have yet to run into many hundreds of thousands before the end is in sight, while the waste of money and munitions is appalling to contemplate. The Russians will find their task on the east no easier than that of their Allies on the west. Twice at least they have found the German network of strategic railways an insuperable bar to the invasion of Prussia. Nevertheless there are no obstacles to the invasion of Germany which cannot be overcome by numbers and determination, but the cost in men and material is great enough to terrify the weak-minded amongst us.

The second way in which the Germans may be brought to their knees is by the process of starvation brought above by a rigid blockade. This process is already in hand, and its effects are being keenly felt in Germany. It is slow but very sure. By this process Germany should be driven to surrender at the very latest by the Summer of 1916. At first sight this method seems less costly than the first one, but it is to be doubted whether the bloodshed will be very much less in a prolonged trench warfare than in a shorter but more vigorous offensive movement. Certainly the cost in money will be much greater. Mr. Asquith has stated that the war is costing England a million and a half sterling a day. That means that if it is carried on for a year from now, England will have to find another 500 million sterling, and to this must be added the enormous losses resulting ftom the dislocation of trade and the cessation of industry. The ruin of Germany may be complete, but before the end has come, every one of us throughout the Empire will have felt the pinch, and Britain will have felt it keenly.

Whichever method may be adopted—and probably it will be a combination of the two, resulting in not so great a loss of life as that involved in an immediate and desperate onslaught on the German trenches, nor in such a monetary loss as would result from a prolonged blockade, yet nevertheless demanding great and terrible loss. I have tried to show that the sacrifice that will be demanded of us are such as to dismay the weak-hearted. This is Germany's opportunity. Seeing that she cannot obtain that dominion of the world, which she set out to obtain; seeing that the prolongation of the war means ruin to herself, she will doubtless try to work upon our selfish fears and to obtain the best terms that she can for herself by negotiation. She may offer to return to the *status quo ante*. She may even offer to allow those colonies which have been wrested from her to remain in the hands of the Allies. There is no doubt that there are people in the ranks of the latter, who, dismayed by the prospect of the sacrifices demanded by a prolongation of the war, would with avidity seize upon such terms, and should they be refused by the allied governments, would form the nucleus of a "Stop the war" party, which would become a great and ever-increasing embarrassment to the governments in the accomplishment of their task. Even now there are signs of the growth of such a party. From the *Daily Mail* of 27th February, I quote the following:—

> Let there be no 'penal peace,' cries the magnanimous Professor Pigou. Let us make terms 'with a nation still strong.'... ... another Professor—this one of Oxford—pleads that there shall be no humiliation of Germany. Germany, who has spared nothing, shall herself be spared. The massacre of Belgium, Louvain, Rheims—all must be forgotten and forgiven lest the feelings of Germany should be hurt.

Feelings of outraged justice, of indignation may be left aside. Even from the point of view of our own selfish fears nothing could be more disastrous than to make peace with Germany "still strong." Should we make peace now on the terms which Germany would offer, nothing is more certain than that the the passage of a few years will see us plunged

once again into this titanic conflict, which will be waged with even greater fierceness and bitterness on both sides. Even to take the most optimistic view, we could not hope to be relieved of that incubus of huge armaments which has been the scourge of Europe for the last forty years. But it is useless to hope to be let off so lightly. History, which has furnished us with so many lessons and analogies for the present war, once again tells us plainly that if we do not bring Germany to her knees now, we shall all be at one another's throats again within a decade.

Twice during modern times has England had to wage war for the liberties of Europe—as well as to safeguard herself—against the onslaughts of a would-be world conqueror, just as she is doing to-day. In the one case the enemy was Louis XIV., in the other it was Napoleon. Incidentally the Kaiser William II. is said to have set both of these before him for an example. One wonders why he has not been warned by their disastrous failures. Against Louis XIV. England fought all through the reign of William III. along with her allies for the defence of the Low Countries. Against the onslaughts of the French that great General, William, made a gallant and successful stand, but although he checked them he could not defeat them. The war dragged on from 1689 till 1697. There was a party then opposed to the war, as it is feared there may be now. The Englishmen of the day could not see their danger. They did not put their hearts into the war, nor back up their gallant king. In 1697 was concluded the Peace of Ryswick, practically on the basis of the *status quo ante*. What was the consequence? In 1702 England had to embark on the war of the Spanish succession—a far bloodier and more costly war than the one which had been indecisively concluded in 1697.

In 1793 England embarked on the war with Revolutionary France, a war which commencing for the salvation of Europe from anarchy, resolved itself into one of defence against Napoleon. This war was brought to an end by the Peace of Amiens in 1802—a peace which was practically a recognition of the *status quo ante*. In exactly fifty-one weeks after signing this peace, England and France were at war again, and continued at war till 1814. Even this was not sufficient. When the Peace of Paris was signed in the latter year, it seemed that all danger from Napoleon was at an end. Yet Waterloo had to be fought before he was finally defeated.

If these examples are not enough, we turn to the wars with France in the middle of the 18th century. In 1744 France and England commenced to fight about their overseas possessions. No decisive result was reached, and in 1748 was signed the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, with the inevitable restoration of conquests. But the causes of rivalry were not removed, and in 1756 commenced the Seven Years' War, which after much bloodshed and losses at last brought the matter to a decision.

Is not the lesson driven home? History teems with examples of the danger of drawn wars. Ask any schoolboy, why, when the Persians invading Greece received a check at Marathon in 490 B.C., they come again in 480; why the truce between Athens and Sparta in 421 B.C. in the midst of the Peloponnesian war came to naught; why he is troubled with the details of three Punic wars in Roman History, and not merely one? The answer is always the same. The most superficial reading of history should prove to the most convinced pacifist that the only way to bring about a lasting peace between ourselves and Germany is either for us to submit to Germany's demand for world dominion, or else to draw her teeth and deprive her of the power of doing any harm in the future. There is no middle course. If the dead bodies of our brothers—Britons, Colonials, Christians, Mussalmans, Hindus, Sikhs—do not cry out to us to finish the work for which they have so gladly laid down their lives, let us think of our own precious skins and let each one of us enshrine in our hearts the words which the Prime Minister first uttered in November of last year, and repeated with solemn emphasis in the House of Commons on the first of March:—

> We shall never sheath the sword, which we have not lightly drawn, until Belgium recovers in full measure all, and more than all, she has sacrificed, until France is adequately secure against the menace of aggression, until the rights of the smaller nationalities of Europe are placed upon an unassailable foundation, and until the military domination of Prussia is wholly and finally destroyed.

A DICTIONARY OF MILITARY TERMS

[COMPILED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.]

ACCOUTREMENTS.—Military dress and arms: equipment.

ADJUTANT.—An officer who assists the commanding officer of a regiment.

ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES.—Include the signal, medical, supplies, transport, ordnance, railways, works, veterinary and postal departments.

ADVANCED BASE.—The area within which are situated the advanced depots of ammunition, supplies, animals and material from which issues to field units are made.

AIDE-DE-CAMP.—An officer who assists the General.

ALIEN.—The legal term for a foreign resident in the United Kingdom. The Royal Proclamations, etc., describe the subjects of belligerent states, as "alien enemies," and require them to register themselves with the police authorities, under heavy penalties for neglect. British subjects may not harbour an unregistered "alien enemy." The Aliens Restriction Order of 1914 places alien enemies under certain disabilities in respect of the possession of firearms, motor-cars, motor-cycles, petroleum, and other articles. An alien may become a naturalized British subject.

AMBULANCE.—A moveable hospital—a conveyance of the wounded.

AMMUNITION.—Shot and shell.

ARMISTICE.—An interval of time agreed upon between belligerents for a temporary cessation of hostilities. Armistices may be general, local or partial. Compensation must be made for damage accidentally done during an armistice. No offensive measures are permitted, but sundry defensive acts may be carried out.

ARMOURY.—The place in which arms are kept.

ARMY consists of two or more Army Corps. Usually three to four Army Corps form an Army.

ARMY CORPS consists of two or three divisions, usually two active and one of reserve. The German Army Corps of two divisions has 44,000 men and a combatant strength of 26,900 rifles, 48 machine guns, 1,200 sabres, and 144 guns. The German Army Corps of three divisions is approximately 60,000 strong. The French and Russian Army Corps are practically the same.

ARMY COUNCIL.—A committee of experts under the presidency of the Secretary of State for War, which has the final disposition of the defences of the Empire. The Council consists of Lord Kitchener, Gen. Sir C. W. H. Douglas, Lt.-Gen. Sir H. C. Sclater, Maj-Gen. Sir J. S. Cowans, Col. Sir S. B. Von Donop, and the Rt. Hon. H. J. Tennant. Each service member is a specialist in some branch of military science, and has had practical experience in the field.

ARMY SERVICE CORPS.—A highly organized department of the army which attends to the transport of baggage and supplies, and also assists the medical service.

ARSENAL.—A magazine or manufactory of cannons, rifles and ammunition.

ARTILLERY.—Cannon, mortars, howitzers; the men who manage them. An artillery usually comprises the following:—

2 guns=1 section.

3 sections=1 battery of 6 guns. Strength 196 men.

3 batteries=1 brigade of Field Artillery. Strength 780 men.

2 Batteries=1 brigade of Horse Artillery. Strength 670 men.

6 inch Howitzer Battery=4 guns in 2 sections. Strength 190 men.

6 inch Howitzer Brigade=16 guns or 4 batteries. Strength 970 men.

4·5 inch Howitzer Battery=6 guns in sections. Strength 196 men.

4·5 inch Howitzer Brigade=18 guns. Strength 750 men.

ARTILLERY, FIELD.—A type of gun which can be used in any country without an excessive strain upon the horses. It consists usually of two patterns of weapons: (1) field guns proper, which are generally of 3 in. to 3·3 in. diameter or calibre, so mounted on their carriages that when fired they do not jump or move and thus require relaying, and (2) howitzers, which are short, squat guns that toss their projectiles high in the air. The diameter of howitzers and the weight of their shell or shrapnel are invariably greater than in the field gun proper. Field guns proper are furnished with shields to protect the men working them against bullets from the enemy's rifles and from his shrapnel. Their range varies from 5,500 to 9,000 yards. The British field gun fires a shell or shrapnel of about 18lb., the French one of 16lb., the German one of 15lb., the Russian of 14½lb., the Austrian one of 14¼lb. The British field howitzer is 4·5 in. in diameter and fires a shell weighing 35lb.

ARTILLERY, HEAVY.—A heavier type of weapon than the field gun or field howitzer which can only be transported with some difficulty over good roads or hard ground. The British heavy artillery consists of four 60-pounder guns (*i.e.*, guns firing a 60lb. shell) with each division. The diameter of the gun is 5in. and the weight of the weapon is 39cwt.; it has a range of 10,000 yards. France has a short gun or howitzer designed by Commandant Rimailho of 6in. diameter, firing a shell of about 94lb. weight. Only a very limited number of these guns were attached to the French army corps previous to the war; their disadvantage is their great weight, which is 47cwt. Their range is 7,000 yards. Germany has a 6in. howitzer firing a shell of about 90lb. and weighing 53cwt.; she has also a 4 in. gun which fires a 30lb. shell but requires a specially prepared platform. The Russian army is also well equipped with heavy artillery in the shape of 4in. guns and 6in. howitzers.

ARTILLERY, HORSE.—A lighter type of gun than the field gun, specially designed for work with cavalry. In the field gun two of the gunners are seated on the carriage of the gun; in horse artillery all the gunners are mounted. The British horse artillery gun has a diameter of 3in. and fires a shell or shrapnel weighing 12½lb.; there are 263 bullets in the shrapnel as against 375 in the field artillery projectile. The weight of the gun is 6cwt., against the 9cwt. of the field gun.

ARTILLERY, SIEGE.—A still heavier and larger type of gun than heavy field artillery, and is usually employed for reducing fortresses. The best known German siege guns are the 8·2 in. howitzer, which fires a 250lb. shell and the 11in. howitzer which fires a shell of 750lb. weight. Howitzers of 12in. and 17in. diameter are said to have been employed by the German Army at Liege and Namur and against Verdun, firing shells of 880lb. and 2,000lb. Great Britain has a siege howitzer of 9·2in. diameter firing a shell of 380lb., and France a weapon of 10·7in. diameter, firing a shell of about 550lb. The Russian Army employs a 12in. siege howitzer firing a shell of 800lb.

ATTACHE.—One attached to a Commander's staff.

AUXILIARY (helping).—The Militia, Yeomanry, and Volunteers are the auxiliary forces.

BANDOLIER.—A leathern belt with small cases for cartridges.

BASE.—A place where the lines of communication originate, where magazines of stores for forces in the field are situated and maintained under direct military management and control and where the business of supplying these forces is located and organized under the military authorities.

BASE OF OPERATIONS.—The point from which an army begins its expedition. A base of supplies is the point from which an army gets its supplies.

BATTALION.—A military unit of about 1,000 infantry, with 96 commissioned and non-commissioned officers. It is commanded by a Lt.-colonel, and divided into companies, each under a captain. A battalion is a self-contained tactical and administrative unit, with band and medical and ammunition services, etc., and the requisite number of horses.

BAYONET.—A steel weapon fitted to a rifle—first made at Bayonne in France.

BELEAGUERED.—Blockaded with an army so as to preclude escape.

BELLIGERENT.—A Power carrying on war.

BESIEGE.—Beset with armed forces.

BESIEGING A FORTRESS is the process of conducting operations for its capture by bombardment, mining, and other methods practised by military engineers.

BILLETING.—A legal process by which armed troops may be quartered in the houses of private persons.

BIVOUAC (Biv-wak).—An encampment without tents.

BLACK WATCH.—The first of Highland regiments, created in 1668, and clothed in a dark tartan. It was reorganized in 1881. In former times membership was practically confined to certain clans having the same affinities.

BLOCKADE.—A means taken by a navy to prevent vessels reaching or leaving a port in war time without permission. A blockade runner is a vessel which eludes this process.

BOMBARDIER.—A skilled artillery man.

BOMBARDMENT.—An attack by artillery or naval guns upon a place fortified or unfortified.

BOMB-PROOF.—A shelter proof against penetration by shells.

BRIGADE can be Infantry, Cavalry, or Artillery. An Infantry Brigade in our army consists of four battalions each 1,000 strong. In most foreign armies it consists of two regiments each of six battalions. This infantry brigade has its medical and supply service besides machine guns; but it has no field artillery.

BRIGADE, ARTILLERY.—An artillery brigade consists of three batteries, howitzers or field guns, each battery of six guns, with about 200 men. In France each battery has four guns.

BRIGADE, CAVALRY.—A Cavalry Brigade in our army consists of three regiments each of three field squadrons of approximately 150 men. Abroad it consists usually of two regiments each of five or six squadrons. With each cavalry brigade there are machine guns and a signal troop.

BRIGADIER.—An officer who has charge of a Brigade.

BULLET is usually of lead covered with nickel and of shape resembling an elongated half of an egg. In most modern rifles a "Spitze" or sharp-pointed bullet is used which is lighter than the blunt-nosed, old-fashioned bullet of longer range, and capable of greater penetration. The British bullet has a diameter of ·303 in. and weighs in the older rifles 215 grains or half an ounce, in the newer about 160 grains. The German bullet has a diameter of ·311in. and weighs 154 grains. The French bullet has a diameter of ·315in. and weighs 198 grains; it is made of an alloy of copper and zinc and has no nickel case.

CALIBRE.—The diameter of the bore of a gun—thus a gun of 12 inches calibre has a bore 12 inches across, taking a 12 inches projectile. Calibre is used in plural to express the length of the gun; thus a phrase often heard is a "gun of forty or fifty calibres," which means that the length of the gun is forty or fifty times the diameter of the bore. Thus a 12 inches gun of fifty calibres, the type mounted in the British Dreadnoughts before the 13·5 inches gun was introduced, is a weapon fifty times 12 inches long, *i.e.*, 50 ft. in length. The longer a gun is the greater is its power.

CAMPAIGN.—The period during which an army keeps the field.

CAPITULATION.—An agreement entered into between belligerents relating to the surrender of troops or fortresses. A surrender of territory is often called an evacuation. A capitulation must be confined to purely military matters, and its acceptance implies no final settlement of the points at issue.

CAPTAIN.—An officer who has charge of a company of soldiers. In the British Empire this rank denotes an officer of a warship carrying at least 20 guns. A captain in the Army commands a company of infantry, troop of cavalry, or battery of artillery. He ranks between a lieutenant and a major. He is responsible for the arms, clothes, efficiency and discipline of his men, and recommends for promotion the non-commissioned officers. A captain in the Navy receives from £411 to £602 per annum, with allowance and share of prize-money. An Army captain has, according to regiment, from £211 to £273.

CARTEL.—An agreement between belligerents to allow certain kinds of non-hostile intercourse, such as postal service, trade in certain commodities, etc. Strictly speaking a "cartel" is a document regulating an exchange of prisoners. A cartel ship carries such prisoners and is inviolate.

CARTRIDGE.—A case containing a charge of an explosive substance and bullet.

CASUALTIES.—Cases of death, injury or sickness.

CAVALRY.—Horse soldiers. In a cavalry, 2 Troops =1 Squadron. Strength about 150 men. 4 Squadrons=1 regiment. Strength about 530 men. Brigade=3 cavalry regiments. Strength about 1,600 men.

Divisional Cavalry Brigades (with divisional artillery). Strength about 10,000 men.

CAVALRY DIVISION consists of two to four Brigades of Cavalry and one to four batteries of Horse Artillery, besides mounted engineers and auxiliary services. The normal foreign Cavalry Division has 4,500 men, and a combatant strength of 3,500 sabres, 12 guns, 8 machine guns.

CHAPLAIN.—A clergyman attached to the army, navy or public institution or family.

COLONEL.—An officer who has command of a regiment.

COLUMN.—Bodies of troops formed one in rear of another.

COMMANDANT.—A title usually given to a military officer in charge of a fortress, military station or military school. A captain-commandant is a captain who is temporarily doing duty of a higher rank.

COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF.—The Field-Marshal holding the highest position of all.

COMMISSARIAT.—The department which supplies provisions to an army.

COMMISSION.— The document by which an officer in the army or navy is authorized to exert his powers. It is signed in the name of the King, and formerly bore his actual signature.

COMMODORE.—A temporary rank in the Royal Navy between that of admiral and captain. He has usually charge of a few ships told off for a special service. It is sometimes a courtesy title of a senior captain. A first class commodore's pay is £1,095 a year.

COMMUNICATIONS.—The means of passing troops from place to place.

CONSCRIPTION.—A compulsory enrolment of men for military or naval service.

CONTRABAND OF WAR.—A term applied to various articles which are regarded as being of sufficient help to an enemy to prolong a war so that the transportation of such articles to him, especially by ships, is prohibited. Each nation has its own list of contraband articles. Great Britain distinguishes between absolute and conditional contraband, according to the text of an Order in Council relating to enemy merchant ships, and a Royal Proclamation specifies the articles to be treated as absolute contraband.

CORDITE.—The British explosive employed in guns and rifles.

CORPORAL.—A non-commissioned officer of the lowest rank in infantry regiments. In the Household Cavalry, a corporal is equivalent to "sergeant," the latter rank being unknown. A corporal wears as a badge two stripes on the left arm and receives from 1s. 9d. to 2s. 8d. a day.

CORPS.—(Kor).—A body of troops.

COSSACK POST.—A group of mounted men employed on outpost duty.

COUNCIL OF WAR.—A deliberation of staff officers in charge of a campaign. In modern times the real Councils of War do not meet on the field of battle, but are conducted at the War Office.

COURT-MARTIAL.—A court of military or naval officers.

CRUISER.—A term applied to war vessels built primarily for speed. They are divided into various classes and are either protected or unprotected. A battle cruiser is a fast boat whose armament is slightly inferior to those of the strongest battleships. See also MERCHANT CRUISERS.

CUIRASSIER.—A soldier who wears a cuirass or breastplate.

DEAD-GROUND.—Ground which is not covered by fire.

DECLARATION OF LONDON.—A document signed by Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria, Russia and other Powers in 1909 to place on record the principles of international law affecting maritime commerce, etc., in times of war. The chief points agreed upon had regard to:—Blockade, contraband, neutral service, destruction of neutral prizes, transfer to neutral flag, enemy character, convoy, resistance to search, compensation.

DE CODER.—A petty officer in the Royal Navy told off for the special duty of deciphering wireless messages.

DEPLOY.—To change formation from column into line.

DEPOT.—The headquarters of a regiment.

DESPATCHES.—Official messages.

DETACHMENT.—A body of troops detained for special service.

DISCIPLINE.—Order, training, military law.

DOUANE.—The French term for Customs House.

DRAGOON.—A soldier trained to serve either on horseback or on foot.

DRESSING STATION.—A place where the wounded are collected and attended to by the personal staff of a field ambulance.

DUM-DUM BULLETS are bullets with the lead uncovered at the nose of the projectile or with nicks cut in the nickel covering. The result of this is that the bullet on striking any object flattens out like a mushroom and inflicts an exceedingly severe wound. The name comes from Dum-Dum, an ammunition factory in India where these bullets were made for the special purpose of fighting against Pathans and other frontier tribes, whose vitality was such that the ordinary pattern of bullet failed to put them out of action on hitting. The dum-dum bullet under the laws of war may not be used in struggles between civilised Powers. The ordinary bullet can be converted into a dum-dum by cutting off the point.

DYNAMITE.—An explosive used in mining as well as in war.

ECHELON.—A formation of successive and parallel units facing in the same direction each on the flank of and to the rear of the units in front of it.

EMBRASSURE.—A channel through the parapet of a fort through which the gun is fired.

ENFILADE-FIRE.—Fire which sweeps troops or defences from a flank.

ERROR OF THE DAY.—A term used in artillery practice to denote the amount of correction which must be made in the elevation of a big gun on account of the temperature of the atmosphere, the pressure of the barometer and the quality of the light. These calculations have been brought to such a pitch of perfection that the amount of error requiring correction after a trial shot at a distance of 6,000 yards may not amount to a few feet.

ESPIONAGE.—The act of spying upon an enemy. See SPIES.

EVACUATE.—To withdraw from, a town, fort or position.

EXPEDITIONARY.—Belonging to an expedition or force going away to accomplish some purpose.

EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.—A military unit consisting of a definite number of men, as organized in times of peace, which is ready for sending to foreign parts on the declaration of war. Such a force is adequately equipped with all stores and supplies.

FARRIER.—A smith who shoes horses.

FIELD-ARMY.—That portion of the army in the field not shut up in fortresses, coast defences or garrisons.

FIELD-MARSHAL.—An officer of the highest rank in the army.

FIELD UNITS.—Mobile units of the Field Army.

FIGHTING TROOPS consist of infantry, mounted infantry, cavalry, artillery, flying corps and engineers.

FLANK.—The right or left extremity of the front of an army. This is always a vulnerable point, unless it rests upon a strong fortress or some great natural obstacle such as a wide river. The Allies in the battle of the Marne rested their left on the fortress of Paris and their right on the fortress of Verdun. This rendered a German turning movement practically impossible.

FORCES IN THE FIELD.—The whole of the military forces mobilised in the theatre of operations under the command of the Commander-in-Chief.

FORCE MAJEUR.—Superior force: Compulsion.

FOREIGN LEGION.—A term given to military bands raised in Great Britain from among foreigners resident therein. Among these may be mentioned the King's Foreign Legion, organized by Chevalier Luigi Ricci, and the Foreign Legion raised by Captain Webber. Foreign legions of this kind were used by Garibaldi in 1866, and during the Franco-Prussian War.

FORTIFICATIONS.—The works erected to defend a place against attack.

FURLOUGH.—Leave of absence from service for a time.

FUSILIER.—An infantry soldier who wears a bearskin cap; formerly who was armed with a fusil.

GARRISON.—A body of troops in a fort or town to defend it against an enemy.

GENERAL.—The commander of an army or division of an army.

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS.—The headquarters of the Commander-in-Chief in the Field.

GENEVA CONVENTION.—A document signed in 1864, whereby civilized nations guaranteed the neutrality of all engaged in tending the sick and wounded in war time. See RED CROSS.

GENEVA CROSS.—A red cross on a white ground, which by an international convention is recognized as a sign of the military medical and hospital service all over the world. The unauthorized use of the Geneva cross in any form is punishable in time of peace, and its misuse in time of war is held to place the misuser outside the pale of civilization. See RED CROSS.

GRENADIER.—One of a regiment of footguards: formerly one who threw grenades.

GUARD.—A term usually applied to a small number of men under a non-commissioned officer to act as sentries. "Changing the Guard," is, in peace time, a picturesque ceremony, seen at its best at the Horse Guards, at Whitehall, S.W.

GUERILLA.—A little war; one who carries on an irregular war.

GUERILLA WARFARE.—This is a term applied to desultory methods employed by savage tribes or combatants inhabiting a mountainous country.

GUNS are described either by the weight of shell they fire or the calibre, *i. e.*, breadth of the bore. For instance, our field guns are known as 18lbs. guns; this refers to the weight of their shell. On the other hand howitzers are known as 5 inch, 6 inch, or 16 inch and thus refer to the calibre of the gun. The essential difference between a field gun and a howitzer is that the former fires shrapnel shell with a flat trajectory, that is to say, as nearly as possible parallel to the ground; the howitzers fire a very heavy shell. It is short in length and its shell goes up very high in the air and descends a steep angle. This enables it to fire on trenches hidden behind hills. The howitzer can fire either shrapnel or a shell filled with a high explosive such as lyddite. We also possess heavy batteries such as the guns firing 30 lbs. or 60 lbs. shells, These guns have a long range, 10,000 yards, and are used when the ordinary field gun cannot reach the target.

HAGUE TRIBUNAL.—A permanent international court consisting of the representatives of 44 nations, instituted at the suggestion of the Tsar of Russia and sitting at the Peace Palace at the Hague (Holland), built at the expense of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. Since 1902 several important matters have been laid before the Court and settled satisfactorily. In the event of the tribunal being called upon to hear a suit, it is necessary for the contending parties (A) to agree upon the subject-matter of dispute, (B) to appoint arbitrators, and, if necessary, an umpire, (C) to submit the case through counsel or agents. English and French are the languages used at the Court.

HAVERSACK.—A bag in which a soldier carries his rations.

HELIOGRAPH.—An instrument used for flashing signals when the sun is shining.

HONOURS OF WAR.—A term used in CAPITULATION (which see), by which surrendered troops are allowed to march out with colours displayed, drums beating, bayonets fixed and swords drawn.

HOSTAGES.—A person held by government or military authorities with a view to secure the due performance of some undertaking; or to whom personal violence is threatened if certain conditions are not fulfilled.

HOWITZER.—A short light cannon for throwing shells in a bombardment. Howtizers have recently been introduced and may be classed as *Light* and *Heavy* field howtizers. The former have calibres up to about 5 inches centimetres, and the latter up to 20 inches.

HOWITZERS, HEAVY are more powerful but not so mobile. They are only used in cases of absolute necessity for knocking down strong fortifications, etc.

INFANTRY.—Foot soldiers. A company=4 sections of 25 men.

A battalion=8 companies: or 4 double companies, Strength 1,000 men.

A brigade=4 battalions. Strength 4,000 men.

A division=3 Infantry Brigades. (With divisional artillery and mounted troops.) Strength 18,000 men,

Army Corps=2 divisions.

INFANTRY DIVISION is the smallest tactical unit which possesses all arms. It is normally of 12 Battalions and has with it from 36 to 72 guns, besides field companies of engineers, medical supply, signal and transport services. The Cavalry with the division is usually two Squadrons, but in some cases more. The strength of a division is approximately 20,000 men.

INSURGENTS.—Those who rise in rebellion.

INVESTING a fortress is the process of completely surrounding it and cutting off the troops in it so that no supplies can reach it from outside. It can then be reduced by the process of starvation.

KHAKI.—A dust-coloured uniform worn particularly on active service.

LEGAL TENDER.—A term applied to the status of various kinds of coinage. When paying debts in peace time, gold and Bank of England notes are legal tender for every purpose and cannot be refused by creditors, except that no one can be compelled to give change. Silver in peace times is not a legal tender for sums over £2, nor is bronze for sums over 1s. On the proclamation of war the Government issued paper money which was made legal tender by Act of Parliament, and at the same time Postal Orders were made legal tender.

LEGION OF FRONTIERSMEN.—An irregular force of horsemen raised by Col. Driscoll, D.S.O., from among men who have seen active service in various parts of the British Empire, and especially on the frontiers. The headquarters is at 6, Adam Street, Strand, London, W.C. They have offered the services of 5,000 trained men for the war.

LEVEE EN MASSE.—A levee is the collection of a body of men for compulsory military or other service in times of national emergency. It is usually restricted to a class, *e.g.*, to men between certain ages, but in times of great danger, a *levee en masse* may be enforced, when all able-bodied men are required to serve in person, either for purposes of defence or offence.

LIEUTENANT.—An officer next below a Captain.

LINES.—The term applies to various phases of military operations. "Regiments of the Line" are those which are kept in a high state of efficiency and usually ordered immediately to the front on proclamation of war. The honour of being on the "right of the line" in the British Army belongs to the Royal Regiment of Artillery. "Lines of communication" are guarded roads, usually railways, along which our reinforcements and supplies travel from the military bases to the fighting front. When an army cuts such a line of communication the belligerent army is seriously impeded. The lines of communications are often sea routes, as were often the case in the Peninsular War, when Wellington kept in touch with his base, *i.e.*, England, by altering his disembarkating points as he proceeded on the campaign. When an army is in camp the tents of the various regiments are arranged in "lines" across which the other regiments are not supposed to pass.

LINES OF COMMUNICATION.—The system of communication by rail road and navigable waterway between the army and its base.

LURNETLE.—A work consisting of four faces, with the two sidefaces affording fire to the flanks.

LYDDITE.—An explosive made at Lydd in Kent. It is believed to be a mixture of fused picric acid and guncotton, and is of a bright yellow colour. It is very safe to handle as it requires an extremely violent blow to detonate it; inside the charge of the shell is a powerful detonator. Melinite, used in the French Army and Navy, and Shimose, used in the Japanese services, are practically identical, and Turpinite, another French explosive, of which much has been heard recently, is very similar. All these preparations burn quietly when lighted.

MACHINE GUNS.—These are automatic guns with ballistic properties of the modern infantry rifle, and capable of delivering a heavy, rapid fire. The machine gun can easily deliver 600 rounds per minute, while at the same time it has been designed to sweep simultaneously with its fire by means of a slowly acting traversing device for the barrel, a certain frontage of the target. Rifle cartridges are used which are fixed with great rapidity by mechanical means; the force of the recoil being used for reloading the gun. The guns are very portable.

MAJOR.—An officer next below a Colonel.

MANŒUVRE.—A movement in naval or military tactics.

MARTIAL LAW.—A code of procedure by which all the ordinary functions of police and magistrates are exercised by military authorities. Martial law must be duly proclaimed by legal processes, and when it is proclaimed the martial authorities are in supreme command of the proclaimed districts and may take any means whatever that are justifiable to secure the success of military operations, the passage of troops, the protection of a district, and the peaceable behaviour of citizens. Under martial law offenders may be shot. The defence of the Realm Act which was passed by Parliament since the declaration of war constitutes a modified form of martial law, giving the military authorities ample powers to conduct military operations, but not at the same time abrogating the common-law rights of citizens.

MASKING a fortress or an army in a fortress consists in keeping the garrison of the fortress or the army under such close observation that it cannot leave the fortress without being attacked.

MERCENARIES.—Soldiers who serve foreigners for the sake of pay.

MERCHANT CRUISERS.—A commercial vessel, usually an Atlantic "liner" which, in return for a subsidy granted to the owner for carrying the British mails, is held at the disposition of the Admiralty for hire or purchase in time of war. When taken over by Government they are converted into "armed cruisers" and mainly used as transports for troops.

MILITIA.—A body of citizen soldiers who do not serve permanently in time of peace.

MINE ON LAND.—A charge of high explosive buried in the ground and arranged so as to explode when the enemy's troops are over it.

MINE-LAYERS.—A term used to describe a ship, not necessarily built for naval purposes, which carries a cargo of explosive floating mines and disposes of them at various points in the vicinity of harbours and in shallow seas. These mines are so constructed that they explode on coming into contact with a vessel. These acts of hostility are circumvented by means of mine trawlers specially commissioned by the British Admiralty for purposes of sweeping the seas where mines are suspected to be laid.

MINE SUBMARINE consists of a steel receptacle containing a powerful charge of high explosive, usually from 300lb. to 1,000lb. of guncotton moored or drifting below or on the surface of the water. There are several types of mine. The best known are contact mines, such as have been scattered by the Germans in the North Sea. These are anchored by a cable to a weight at the bottom of the sea and so arranged as to remain some 9ft. or 10ft. below the surface whatever the state of the tide. They are exploded when a ship strikes against them, the blow either firing a detonator or causing the ignition of the charge by chemical action—breaking a tube containing sulphuric acid which fires small quantity of chlorate of potash. A different

type of mine is used for the defence of harbours, and is fired by electricity from the shore when an enemy's ship is above them. A map of the minefield, or system of mines, is placed in the firing station and the position of the ship is shown on it by a camera-obscura. The observer in the station watches and presses the key which completes the circuit when the enemy's vessel is over the mine.

MOBILIZATION.—The process by which an army or navy is converted from a peace to a war footing. The visible sign of mobilization is the calling out of reservists. A well organized force is always ready for rapid mobilization, and not only has the means at hand for summoning men to their regiments or ships, but provides for them clothing, feeding, etc., Mobilization also includes the carrying out of definite plans relating to the disposition of men and ships all carefully thought out in advance. Partial mobilizations, conducted under another guise, are often conducted in times of peace; but complete mobilization of Russian troops was the nominal cause of Germany declaring war against Russia.

MORALE.—A term applied to the spirit that animates an army, the sum total of the psychology of each soldier composing it. Morale may be determined by an initial success or failure, and its quality may be a deciding factor in the outcome of a war.

MORATORIUM.—A legalized process announced by Royal Proclamation by which the acceptors of bills of exchange are absolved from meeting them when they become due, during the term of the moratorium. On the suspension of the London Stock Exchange, due to the declaration of war, a short Act of Parliament was put through with the design of affording substantial relief in regard to a great number of financial obligations.

MORTARS are heavy siege artillery of a calibre which is much larger than a howitzer and are used against the strongest works of the enemy, such as modern large fortresses and against guns protected by armour.

MUSKETRY.—Discharge of a number of muskets (firearms).

NATURALIZATION.—The process by which a claim is made to the possession of British citizenship. Persons are deemed to be British subjects if born in His Majesty's dominions, whether of British or of Foregin parents, or if children or grandchildren of natural-born British subjects, wherever born. The ordinary way of becoming a British subject is by fulfilling the requirements of the "Naturalization Act, 1870." The applicant must either have resided in the United Kingdom for a term of not less than five years, or have been in the service of the Crown for a similar period. He must also furnish evidence of his intention, when naturalized, either of residing in the United Kingdom, or of serving under the Crown. All applications for certificates of naturalization should be addressed to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

NEGOTIATIONS.—Proposals for peace or settlement.

NEUTRALITY.—When a nation is at war it is obligatory for the belligerent parties to notify all other Powers that they are engaged in hostilities. And it is the duty of such Powers, not taking part in the war, immediately to issue a proclamation of neutrality, warning their citizens that no assistance must be given to belligerents. The ships of neutral nations are entitled to go about their business in the usual way provided they are not carrying contraband of war (see CONTRABAND) but they are liable to be searched by belligerent ships. Belligerent ships may not be fitted out in neutral waters, but if they are driven by force of circumstances in a neutral harbour they may be supplied with sufficient coal to enable them to proceed on their voyage, but they must leave a neutral port within 24 hours or be "interned" for the rest of the war. If combatants seek refuge or accidentally enter neutral territory they also must be interned.

NITRO-CELLULOSE.—A preparation of gun-cotton, the explosive used in guns in the German Navy.

NON COMBATANT.—A term applied to civilians, men, women, and children, who do not take an active part in war, and who, if found by an enemy engaged in peaceful occupation and not in possession of arms, are entitled to the elementary rights of protection according to the established usages of civilized warfare. International Law guarantees them their lives and property, and that they shall not be required to take part in the military operations of the enemy. They are liable to provide supplies (which will be paid for by receipt), they may be called upon to act as guides, and they may be required to do services for enemy outside their ordinary work. They are under martial law, and any disobedience is punishable with death.

OBJECTIVE, in strategy, is the town, fortress, arsenal or other object aimed at, the occupation of which is deemed to have a decisive effect. In 1870 Paris was the objective of the Germans, and Berlin the objective of the French.

ORDNANCE.—Heavy weapons of warfare. (See Artillery.)

PANOPLY.—Armament: a full suit of defensive armour.

PARLIAMENTAIRE.—An unarmed person deputed to approach the enemy under a flag of truce, accompanied by a bugler and interpreter, to open negotiations, or deliver a message. A parliamentaire's person is inviolate but if he should be accidentally injured, it is at his own risk.

PAROLE.—A promise by a prisoner not to escape.

PASSPORT.—A document issued by a military commander authorizing an enemy subject to travel unmolested within the district occupied by his forces.

PATROL.—A small body of men, usually cavalry, sent out for the purpose of gaining general information as to the presence of the enemy and the nature of the surrounding country.

PRISONER OF WAR.—The term applied to combatants and non-combatants of the enemies' nationality who are either taken in the field of battle, or are arrested under various circumstances. A large number of Germans and many Austrians have been arrested in Great Britain and detained as prisoners of war on the ground that they were reservists about to proceed to join the enemies' forces.

PRIVATE.—A common soldier of the lowest rank.

PRIZE COURT.—A court organized in connection with the Admiralty Division of the High Court of Justice to condemn as prizes any enemies' ships taken in warfare. The Court hears evidence as to the capture and nationality of the ship, and orders its cargo to be disposed of under the rules of equity, innocent third parties owning such cargo not forfeiting their rights. The value of the ship, when finally disposed of, becomes "prize money," and is divided amongst those who assisted at its capture.

PUNITIVE.—Pertaining to punishment.

RECONNAISSANCE.—The examination of tract of country: a warlike movement.

RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE.—An advance of a considerable body of troops detached from a main army with a view to discover the enemy's position, or with the purpose of misleading him.

RECONNOITRE.—To examine or watch the position, force, etc., of an enemy.

RECONNOITRING.—The military technical name for scouting. A reconnoitring party is sent out for the purpose of gathering information, and its business is to return with the information without having revealed its presence to the enemy.

RECRUIT.—A newly enlisted soldier.

RED CROSS SOCIETY.—An organization embodying under one name and administration a number of hitherto separate societies formed in 1905. It can call upon 60,000 persons, many of them highly trained, to undertake field ambulance and hospital work. The British Red Cross Society does not exist to take upon itself the whole work of administering to the sick and wounded. It is purely a contributory body. In time of war it would act under the directions of the Admiralty and the War Office, and its activities are limited by the nature of the war and of the climatic conditions under which it is being fought. The British Red Cross Society is recognized by the War Office and the Admiralty as the organization responsible for the Red Cross Movement throughout the British Empire, and the terms of the arrangement between the heads of the Services and the Society are included in "Field Service Regulations." Office, 9, Victoria Street, London S.W.

REDOUBT.—A field-work entirely enclosed by a defensible parapet.

REFUGEES.—Persons who flee for refuge from the theatre of war.

REGIMENT.—A body of soldiers under a Colonel; some regiments have five or six battalions.

REGULARS.—Soldiers belonging to the regular or standing army.

REINFORCEMENTS.—Additional troops to strengthen an army.

REVEILLE.—The beat of drum at dawn to rouse soldiers.

RICOCHET (rik-o-sha).—Rebound or skipping of a bullet along the ground.

RIFLE.—The modern rifle has a range of about 2,800 yards (*i.e.*, can hit with effect at that distance). The British rifle is the Lee-Enfield, the latest pattern of which weighs 8lb. 10oz. The barrel is 25in. long and the rifling has seven grooves. The magazine from which the weapon is re-loaded by pulling a lever will hold ten cartridges. The German rifle is the Mauser of ·311 in. diameter and weighs 9lb. The rifling consists of four grooves. The French magazine will hold five cartridges. The rifle is the Lebel and weighs 9lb. 3 oz. The rifling has four grooves. The magazine is contained in a tube under the barrel and will hold eight cartridges. The Russian rifle is the Nagant "three line" and weighs 9lb. The rifling has four grooves and the magazine will hold five cartridges. The Austrian rifle is the Mannlicher of ·315 in. diameter, weighing 8lb. 5 oz. Serbia employs a pattern of Mauser rifle of ·276 in. diameter with a magazine holding five cartridges. The development of the rifle will in future be towards making it automatic which would result in a very much greater rapidity of fire. Recent experiments have proved that 100 rounds a minute can be fired with such a rifle.

SABRE.—A heavy sword slightly curved, used by cavalry.

SCOUT.—A soldier specially trained to act on his own initiative and sent out to gather useful information.

SERGEANT.—A non-commissioned officer next in rank above the corporal; he instructs the recruits, from ranks, etc.

SERGEANT-MAJOR.—A non-commissioned officer who assists the adjutant in battalion matters.

SHAKO.—A kind of military cap. The helmet succeeded it in the British army.

SHELL is a hollow case of steel or iron containing a charge of explosive, usually lyddite or powder. The charge of explosive is fired in one of two ways—either by a percussion fuse, which is detonated when the nose of the shell strikes some object, whether the ground, the water, the wall of a building, or the shield of an enemy's gun; or by the shock of the discharge of the gun and which burns for a certain number of seconds or fractions of a second and then explodes the charge. The time fuse contains a pellet which is jerked forward as the gun is fired; it strikes a tiny detonator, the heat generated by which ignites a length of slow-burning composition, and this after a certain lapse of time fires the powder or lyddite in the shell. There is a safety contrivance in all fuses to prevent any risk of the shell being exploded if it is accidentally dropped. Shells vary in weight according to the calibre or diameter of gun from which they are fired and according to the pattern of gun. Thus the British field gun with a calibre of 3·3 inches fires a shell of 18lb., the British 6in. gun a shell of 100lb., the British 12in. gun a shell of 850lb., and the British 13·5in. gun a shell of either 1,250lb. or 1,400lb.

SHRAPNEL.—A shell filled with bullets, named after its inventor, General Henry Shrapnel, of the British Royal Artillery. Shrapnel are shells with exceedingly thin walls containing a large number of bullets. The number in the British field gun is 375, in the British horse artillery gun 263, in the French and German field guns 300, in the Russian field gun 260. There is a small charge of powder in the shrapnel which is exploded in exactly the same way as in the shell. This charge of powder is fired when the shrapnel is some distance in front of the target. The explosion shatters the thin steel case, when the bullets fly forward with the velocity with which the shrapnel was travelling and scatter over a considerable area. The effect is very similar to that of a shot gun at 30 or 40 yards, but the effective range of shrapnel is 3,000, 4,000 or 5,000 yards and sometimes even more. Hence shrapnel are deadly against troops in the open or when badly entrenched.

SKIRMISH.—A slight fight; a preliminary combat.

SPIES.—A relative term interchangeable with SCOUT (which see). Spies, however, are known to be sent by enemies in preparation of war, and may be years before the outbreak of hostilities. Spies captured in peace time are liable to penal servitude; in war time, they are liable to be shot.

SQUAD.—The half of a section or a small number of men.

SQUADRON.—A body of cavalry comprising two companies or troops.

ST. JOHN AMBULANCE BRIGADE.—An organization for giving first aid to the injured. The brigade has

4,150 members mobilized, while there is roll of 2,000 men waiting to sign at a moment's notice.

STRATEGY.—Science of directing great military movements. It is the management of the movements of an army or a number of armies preceding the actual battle. The aim in modern strategy is to destroy or capture the main armed forces of the enemy, after which his fortresses can be reduced and his territory seized and held to ransom.

SUBALTERN.—A commissioned officer below the rank of Captain.

TACTICS is the management of an army or a group of armies in the battle. The aim in tactics is to concentrate superior force on some part of the enemy's army, thus shattering it and causing general demoralisation; to work round one of the enemy's flanks, thus turning his force and threatening his supplies and communications: or to break through the enemy's front and roll up the two halves of his army.

THEATRE OF OPERATIONS.—The whole area of land or sea in which fighting may be expected.

TORPEDO.—A cigar shaped steel vessel containing in the head or front part, a powerful charge of gun-cotton, and an engine driven by compressed air working two screws. There is a rudder actuated by a gyroscope which prevents the torpedo from deviating from the direction in which it is fired. The torpedo is discharged from a kind of gun in the ship, known as a torpedo tube, either by compressed air or by a small charge of explosive, and the tube may be placed either above water, as in destroyers and many small cruisers, or under water, as in all submarines and modern battleships. Torpedoes are of many different patterns, speeds and sizes; the oldest in use in the British Navy are 14in in diameter and have a range of 800 yards, and a charge of 77lb, of gun-cotton in the head; the newest are 21in, in diameter, have a range of 7,000 yards and carry a charge of about 300lb. It takes about four minutes from the moment when it is fired to reach the target at this range. The power of the engines is increased by a system of heating the compressed air supplied to the engine. The weight of these big 21in. torpedoes is about 28cwt., the length 24ft. In the German Navy the older torpedoes are of 14in. and 17·7in. diameter; the latest in actual use is a 20lb. pattern with 290in. of explosive in the head.

TRANSPORT.—The equipment of an army which attends to the carrying of supplies to the front and the bringing of the wounded to the rear. A vessel carrying troops is also called a transport.

TRENCH.—An excavation which is for use either as a use for concealment or protection or both.

TRINITROTOLUOL or "T. N. T.", the German high explosive is similar in its composition to picric acid (*i.e.*, it is prepared by treating some carbon compound with nitric acid), and it has the peculiar qualities of lyddite and melinite, in that it requires to be violently detonated and to be enclosed in some strong body, such as a steel case, to produce much effect.

TROOP.—A sub-division of a Squadron corresponding to a section of the Infantry.

TROOPER.—The title of a horseman in the cavalry, and equivalent to "Private" in infantry regiments.

TRUCE, FLAG OF.—A white flag which is used in warfare as a sign that the person showing it wishes to make an authorized communication with the enemy. Bearers of such flags, who may be accompanied by a bugler and an interpreter, must be courteously received and treated. They may be blindfolded and detained pending the preparation of a reply.

ULTIMATUM.—Final conditions; or terms offered as a basis of a treaty.

UNIFORM.—The dress (of one kind) which distinguishes regiments, sailors, policemen, etc.

VALISE.—A small case containing clothes, etc.

VEDETTE.—A sentinel on horseback.

VETERAN.—One who has had long experience of war.

VOLUNTARY.—Proceeding from choice or free will.

VOLUNTEERS.—Civilians who enter military service voluntarily.

WAR CRIME.—A technical expression for the violation, by soldiers or civilians, of the recognized rules of warfare, illegitimate hostilities, espionage and marauding. Instances are: the use of forbidden weapons, killing the wounded, abuse of a flag of truce, abuse of the Red Cross badge, poisoning water supply, looting, etc. Certain civil offences become war crimes during hostilities. Summary execution or punishment of such offenders is prohibited. They must be duly tried and convicted.

WARRANT OFFICER.—An officer in the Army or Navy who is between the rank of a commissioned and non-commissioned officer. He wears a sword, but is not entitled to a salute.

WARRIORS.—Soldiers, especially good soldiers.

YEOMANRY.—A body of voluntary cavalry at first entirely composed of yeoman or freeholders.

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G. A. NATESAN & CO., BOOKSELLERS, 4, SUNKURAMA CHETTY STREET, MADRAS.

GAZETTEER OF THE WAR

BRIEF NOTES ON FORTS, TOWNS, VILLAGES AND RIVERS.

[COMPILED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.]

ABOUKIR BAY.—The Nile Delta in Egypt the site of Nelson's victory in 1798.

ADEN, on the Red Sea, guarding approaches to the Suez Canal. Aden is under the Government of Bombay, and has an export and import trade.

ADIGE, which rises in the Rhaetian Alps in Austria, flows S., past Trient into Italy, then E., entering the sea not far N. of the Po.

ÆGEAN SEA between Greece, part of Turkey and Asia Minor.

ÆGINA GULF is to the of South of Athens in Greece.

AERSCHOT.—A small Belgian town on the railway lying a few miles to the West of Diest.

AGINCOURT.—A village in France belonging to the Department of Pas-de-Calais.

AISNE: A French river rising in the Meuse Department and flowing into the Oise near Compeigne.

AISNE is a frontier department in the north-east of France. The Oise, Aisne and Marne are navigable and canals furnish 170 miles of waterway. Aisne is divided into five arrondissement: St. Quentin and Vervins in the north, Laon in the centre and Soissons and Chateau Thiery in the south. Its military centre is Amiens. Laon is the capital.

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, a famous city in Prussia 34 miles west south-west of Cologne.

ALAND ISLANDS.—An archipelago at the entrance to the Gulf of Bothnia about 25 miles from the coast of Sweden and 15 from that of Finland.

ALGERIA, a country in Northern Africa belonging to France.

ALGIERS, seaport and capital of Algeria on the Bay of the same name.

ALOST is a town in Belgium, in the province of East Flanders, situated on the left bank of the Dender.

ALPINE FRONTIERS, in Tyrol, all fortified.

AMIENS is a city in Northern France, capital of the department of Somme, on the left bank of Somme, 81 miles north of Paris, on the northern railway to Calais. During the last war between France and Germany, Amiens after an important action fell into the hands of Prussians on the 28th of November 1870.

ANDENARDE is a town in Belgium east of Courtrai at about a distance of 9 miles by rail from that town. Marlborough's famous victory was won here.

ANIZY-LE-CHATEAU.—A small town of 1,066 inhabitants in the department of the Aisne, 17 miles from Soissons, and 123 miles by road from Paris.

ARMENIA.—A lofty tableland in the upper valleys of the Euphrates, Tigris, Aras, and Kur. It does not now exist politically being shared between Turkey, Persia and Russia.

ARRAS, the capital of the French department of Pas-de-Calais, 120 miles north of Paris.

AVRICOURT is a railway town on the borders of German Lorraine and the French Department of Meurthe-et-Moselle on the line running from Luneville.

BACCARAT is a town in Eastern France, situated on the river Meurthe to the north of Raon-la-Tape.

BAILLEUL is a town in Northern France, in the department of Nord, situated on the Franco-Belgian border some 20 miles west-north-west of Lille.

BAPAUME is a town in the French Department of Pas de Calais, 12 miles to the south-east of Arras, the scene of a German victory in 1871, and 25 miles to the north-east of Amiens. The distance from Bapaume to the mouth of the River Somme is roughly about 65 miles.

BELFORT.—A companion fortress on the French side to Strasburg on the German. It is an entrenched camp with a perimeter of twenty-seven miles with triple lines of forts.

BERLIN.—Formerly the capital of Prussia, and, since 1871, of the German Empire, Berlin ranks as the third largest city in Europe, and is divided by the River Spree into two almost equal portions. Since the creation of the German Empire the city has grown with remarkable rapidity.

BIKSCH contains a railway defence fort in the district of Metz in Lorraine.

BIXSCHOOTE is in Belgium between Ypres and Dixmude.

BOMBAY, strongly defended and of strategic importance in the west coast of India.

BORDEAUX is the third seaport of France, and chief town in the department of Gironde, famous as a wine-growing country. The town is beautifully situated in a plain, and is 359 miles from Paris by rail.

BOULOGNE-SUR-MER.—Well known for its fine sands and sea bathing, Boulogne-sur-Mer, a fortified seaport in the French department of Pas-de-Calais, has been in increasing favour with English residents. It was at Boulogne that Napoleon encamped in 1804, purposing to sweep down on England.

BOYEN, fort in Koenigsberg district in Germany.

BRAISNE is a small French town of 1,481 inhabitants on the River Aisne, situated about half-way between Soissons and Fismes.

N.B.—The Soissons-Braisne-Fismes-Rheims line covers a front of some 32 miles from west to east.

BRANSBUTTEL, at the North Sea entrance to Kiel Canal. This station strengthens the position of the German fleet in the North Sea, and is protected by the elaborate defensive works guarding the Kiel Canal.

BREMEN is a town in the Free State of Bremen in Germany. It has a dock named Emperor's Dock which is capable of accommodating the largest ships.

BREMENHAVEN is an outport of Bremen in Germany situated on the right bank of the river Weser. It is a thriving and increasing town with splendid port accommodation for the largest ships in Germany.

BREST, a fortified seaport in the department of Finistere, France. It has a magnificent harbour.

BROMBERG.—The fortress guarding the railway approaches across the River Netze in East Germany.

BRUNSBUTTELL in Germany has two docks for dreadnoughts. It has a coaling station and a harbor on the north bank of the Elbe in Schleswig-Holstein, and is the western terminus of the Kaiser William Canal.

BUDAPEST.—Standing on the banks of the Danube, Budapest, the capital of Hungary, is the second of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

BUG is a river distinguished as the Western Don, which rises in the east of Austria. It is navigable from Brest-Litovsk downwards.

CALAIS.—Twenty-one miles from England, across the Straits of Dover, Calais is known as one of the chief ports for travellers from England to France. A new harbour was opened in 1889.

CALCUTTA, naval base, difficult for the enemy to reach, as the channel up to Hooghly is tortuous and calls for the skill of a pilot thoroughly versed in the waters.

CAROLINE ISLANDS are a widely scattered archipelago in the Pacific Ocean, east of the Philippines and north of New Guinea, and they belong to Germany.

CATTARO is a seaport town in Austria facing the Adriatic, and has an ancient fortress with modern guns.

CHALONS-SUR-MARNE—An old-world French town, Chalons-Sur-Marne, on the right bank of the river Marne 107 miles east of Paris. In 1856 Napolean III. formed the celebrated camp of Chalons. Called also merely Chalons.

CHARLEVILLE, a town in the French Department of the Ardennes, on the River Meuse, a few miles to the north of Mezieres.

CHATEAU-THIERRY is a town in Northern France, capital of a district in the department of Aisne, 59 miles east north-east of Paris on the eastern railway to Nancy. Its population in 1906 was 6,872. It is built on a rising ground on the right bank of the Marne.

CHATEAU-SALINS is a small town on the western border of German Lorraine, 20 miles to the east north-east of Nancy.

CHAUNY is a town in Northern France in the department of Aisne, 19 miles south by west of St. Quentin by rail.

CHERBOURG.—The great naval station of France, Cherbourg is situated on the north extremity of the peninsula of Cotentin in the English Channel.

CHILI is a republic in the west coast of South America near which German and British Cruisers had an exchange of welcome shots.

CIANITZA or Chainitza, a small place in the south-east of Serajevo at a distance of about 46 miles from that town.

COBLENZ OR KOBLENZ.—(French Coblence) the capital of Rhenish Prussia, 56 miles south south-east of Cologne by rail, is beautifully situated at the junction of the Rhine and Moselle.

COLMAR is situated on the Lauch and the Fecht, tributaries to the Ill. It communicates by canal with the Rhine, and has a station on the railway from Basel to Strasburg. Colmar remained French until 1871, and has since formed part of the German Empire.

COMPEIGNE is a town in Northern France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Oise, 52 miles north north-east of Paris on the northern railway between Paris and St. Quentin. From 1870 to 1871 it was the headquarters of the German Army.

COMPIERRE AND MAUILLY.—Small French towns to the north-east of Verdun.

CONDE-SUR-L'ESCANT is in the department of Nord, at the junction of canals of the Scheldt and of Conde Mons. Its population in 1906 was: town 2,701; commune 5,310. It lies seven miles north by east of Valenciennes and two miles from the Belgian frontier.

CONGO, a Belgian Colony in South Guinea south of the Lower Congo. There is also a river of the same name which enters the Atlantic.

CONSTANTINOPLE: "The city of the golden horn," the capital of the Turkish Empire contains an impregnable fortress and one of the finest harbours in Europe. It has played an important part in European history owing to its stratrgic position.

COURTRAI, (a corruption of its Flemish name *Kortryk*) is an important and once famous town of West Flanders, Belgium, situated on the Lys.

CRACOW is a town of Austria in Galicia, 212 miles west by north of Hamberg by rail. It has passed through many vicissitudes.

CRAONNE is a small town in the French Department of the Aisne, about 3 miles from the north bank of the river Aisne, and 22 miles east north-east of Soissons.

CRECY-EN-BRIE is a small town of 978 inhabitants in the French Department of the Seine-et-Marne, about 26 miles due east of Paris and 10 miles south of Meaux. The Crecy-Provins-Esternay line measures 31 miles from west to east and the Crecy Coulommiers-Sezanne line covers a front of some 45 miles.

CREIL is a French manufacturing town of 9,234 inhabitants in the Oise Department some 33 miles north of Paris by road. Creil is 20 miles to the south-west of Compiegne and 7 miles west of Senlis.

CUXHAVEN.—A town in Hamburg (Germany), at the mouth of the Elbe, 71 miles by rail north-west of Hamburg

Built in 1892-9 it has been made capable of berthing the largest ocean steamers.

DANUBE.—The Danube has three sources issuing from the Black Forest of Germany and uniting at Donauschingen, the convergent point of important routes from Firburg, Strasburg, Rastadt and Stuttgart. It is the most historic river in Europe as it is also the largest its basin has been the scene of historic battles.

DANZIG, the capital of West Prussia, is an important seaport and fortress on the left bank of the western branch of the Vistula, 284 miles north-east of Berlin. The Gulf of Danzig is an inlet of the Baltic.

DELME is a small town in German Lorraine 9 miles north north-west of Chateau-Salins.

DIEDENHOFEN, railway defence forts in the district of Metz.

DIEPPE.—A French seaport, overlooking the English Channel, Dieppe sank into secondary importance on the rise of Havre. It is situated among chalk cliffs at the mouth of the river Arques, and has shipbuilding yards and important fisheries. There is regular communication with England by steamers from Newhaven, and it is the port for Paris by way of Rouen.

DINANT is 14 miles south of Namur, and is hemmed in by precipitous limestone rocks, one of which is crowned by a former citadel.

DIXMUDE is a Belgian town in the department of West Flanders. It is 15 miles south of Ostend.

DNIESTER, a very rapid river, rises in the Carpathians, and after reaching the Russian frontier, rushes muddy and turbid, through low plains to the sea near Odessa.

DORMANS is a small town of about 1,620 inhabitants on the river Marne, in the French Department of the Marne.

DRINA, a tributary of the Save separates Servia in the W. from Bosnia.

DUNKIRK.—Situated on the Straits of Dover Dunkirk is the most northerly seaport of France, and is 189 miles from Paris.

DUSSELDORF is the chief town of the populous district of that name in Rhenish Prussia. It stands on the right bank of the river Rhine and is a Zeppelin station.

DYNOFF is a town to the west of Przemysl, situated on the San.

ELBE rises in the Riesengebirge in Bohemia, passes N. into Kingdom of Saxony by a defile between, the Erzgebirge and the Riesengebirge, defended by fortress of Konigstein (Germany).

EPERNAY, a French town in the Marne Department, the headquarters of the wines of champagne 86 miles to the east and slightly to the north of Paris. (Population 20,291.)

EPINAL.—A great citadel on the Moselle in France. It, is surrounded by great forts, extending over a perimeter of twenty-seven miles. Epinal is the headquarters of an army corps.

ETAIN is a small town of 2,880 inhabitants in the French Department of the Meuse, some 50 miles west and to the north of Metz, and some dozen miles east north-east of Verdun.

FISMES is a small French town of 3,035 inhabitants standing midway between Braisne (G. V.) and Rheims.

FIUME, (in Austria) a well fortified post in the Adriatic.

FOCA, pronounced Fawtcha, is a town in Bosnia situated at the confluence of the Drina and Cehotina rivers.

GALICIA.—Galicia has an area of 30,299 square miles and is the largest Austrian province, comprising the old kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria, the duchies of Auschwitz and Zator and the Grand Duchy of Cracow. Galicia lies on the northern slopes of the Carpathians, which with their offshots cover about a-third of the whole area of the country. Galicia has a population of 7,295,538 (1900 census), of whom the Poles form 45 per cent. and the Ruthenians 42 per cent. Besides Lemberg, the only other university town in Galicia is Cracow.

GARONNE, rises in Pyrenees; flows N. E. to Toulouse, then N. W. to estuary of Gironde. Bordeaux on estuary.

GEMERSHEIM, defending railway lines in the district of Munich.

GERBEVILLERS is a French town in the Department of the Meurthe and Moselle, of some 1,577 inhabitants, on the River Agne or Mortagne, 20 miles to the south and slightly to the east of Nancy, and some 16 miles from the nearest point on the borders of Germany.

GIBRALTAR.—The key to the Mediterranean commanding its western entrance. It is the greatest British stronghold.

GLATZ, fort in the district of Posen.

GLOGAN.—The fortress defending the region of the Upper Oder in Germany.

GOLDAP is a town on the railway running between Lyck and Insterburg on the eastern borders of East Prussia.

GONIONDY, on the River Bobor, just inside the boundary line, and three miles north-west of Bealystock.

GRODEK is a fortified town in Russia situated on the river Smotritch, a tributary of the Dniester. Grodek is south south-east of Tarnopal, an Austrian city in Galicia.

GUEBVILLIER is a town in north-eastern France in the department of Moselle. It lies to the south-west of Nancy at a distance of some 30 miles by rail.

GUISE is a town in the French Department of Aisne on the River Oise, 25 miles by rail east north-east of St. Quentin, and 25 miles north-east of the fortress of Lafere.

GUMBINNEN, a town in East Prussia 70 miles to the East of Konigsburg. Scene of Russian adventure in the present war.

HAINAUT, OR HAINAULT is an ancient province, now forming part of the north-east of France and the south-west of Belgium.

HAMBURG.—Hamburg is the principal commercial seaport of Germany. The city is on the Elbe, 75 miles from the German Ocean.

HARTLEPOOL.—A municipal borough, seaport and bathing resort about 18 miles east south east of Durham on the north-east coast of England.

HAVRE.—Havre second only to Marseilles as a seaport of France, is 143 miles from Paris.

HAZEBROUCK is a town in Northern France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Nord, on the canalised Bourre, 29 miles west north-west of Lille.

HELIGOLAND is a small island on the North Sea belonging since 1890 to Germany. It is an important naval station.

HERBERTSHOHE is a town in the Bismarck Archipelago.

HESEL AND SAARLOUIS, defending railway lines in Cologne district.

HIRSON is a town on the railway, 26 miles to east and south of Le Cateau.

HONGKONG, home of the British Chinese squadron. Both east and west entrances into this harbour are narrow and fully supplied with means of defence. It is the largest port in the world.

HUY.—This Belgian town is romantically situated amid lofty rocks on the Meuse about twenty miles from Liege.

ILLER, joins the Danube at Ulm.

INGOLSTADT.—A fortified town of Bavaria. It is situated on the Danube 200 miles from Vienna. Fifty miles south-westward is the great arsenal of Augusburg.

INN, It rises in Switzerland, joins the Danube at Passau and forms the frontier between Germany and Austria.

INVALIDES OR HOTEL DES INVALIDES is one of the important civil buildings of Paris. It is situated on the left of the Seine and was founded by Louis XIV as a retreat for wounded and infirm soldiers.

ISAR, rises in the Tyrolese Alps, N. of Innsbruck, and passes Munich (capital of Bavaria), and the centre of all roads on the right bank of the Danube.

IVANGOROD, an entrenched camp fifty miles south-east of Warsaw.

JAROSLAV, a town in Galicia near Przemysl.

JEDDAH seaport and a sacred place for Mohammedans in Arabia near Mecca. It is exempt from attack by the allies.

JENA, a fortress in the grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar in Germany famous since Napoleon's battle.

KALISCZ, a town of Poland, 134 miles west South-West of Warsaw.

KIAO-CHAU, fortress in German protectorate in Chinese Province, Shantung. It was invested by the Japanese fleet and has since fallen.

KINZIG, joins the Rhine at Kehl. Flows along road from Strasburg to the Upper Danube.

KUR is a tributary of the Volga (with tributary Aras). On it is Tiflis, capital of Transcaucasia.

KOMAROM, PETERVARAD, ORSOVA, three fortified points on the Danube.

KRONESTADT, a naval fortress on the island of Kotlin near the head of the Gulf of Finland and a little more than 17 miles from Petrograd.

KUSTRIN.—An unusually strongly defended Prussian fortress at the confluence of the Oder and the Wartha. This stronghold has the advantage of being surrounded by marshes.

LACCADIVES, off Malabar Coast, the scene of some of the *Emden* raids on merchant ships.

LAO-SHAN BAY is a small inlet on the shores of the Yellow Sea, 7 miles to the north of Tsingtao and on the northern side of the opening into Kiachau Bay.

LASKA, a small town of Poland, 17 miles east of Siradia, on the left bank of the Grabowka.

LAS PALMAS.—The chief town of the Canary Islands, now a province of Spain, on the north-east coast of Gran Canaria. Population 47,890.

LASSIGNY is a little French town of some 778 inhabitants in the Department of the Oise some 26 miles to the south of Peronne, and about 15 miles to the north of Compiegne.

LEMBERG.—The capital of the Austrian crownland of Galicia, it has a famous university.

LENS, a town of France in the department of Pas-de-Calais, 12 miles south-east of Bethune.

LIBAU.—A Russian naval fortress and station on the Baltic, it has a fine artificial harbour which is almost ice free.

LEROUVILLE is a little French town on the left or western bank of the river Meuse, 16 miles east of Bar-le Duc and 30 miles north north-west of Toul.

LIGNY, a Belgian village, 13 miles north-east of Charleroi. On this ground Napoleon defeated the Prussians under Blucher in 1815.

LILLE is a city in Northern France, capital of the department of Nord. It is the headquarters of the 1st Army corps.

LODZ, a town of Poland, 42 miles west south-west of Warsaw.

LOHNITZA or LOSNITZA is a small town on the Servian frontier.

LOIRE, rises in Cevennes, flows N. W. to Orleans (75 S. W. Paris), then rather to the S. of due W. into Bay of Biscay.

LORIENT, fortress and naval base just north of the mouth of the Loire, and due west from Orleans.

LOUVAIN.—The town was the seat of an ancient and celebrated university. It is famous for its Cathedral and treasures of art. It has been the scene of German vandalism in this war.

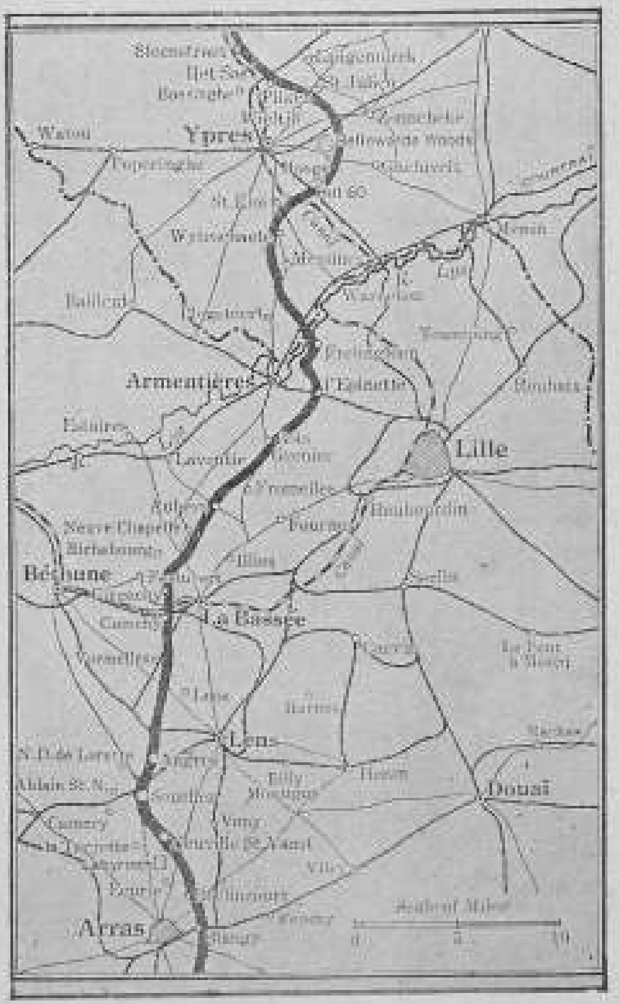
LOVICZ, a town of Poland, 42 miles west of Warsaw on the right bank of the Bzura.

LUBLIN is a Government of Poland, West Russia occupying the south-east angle of that Province.

LUNEVILLE is a garrison town of north-eastern France. It is an important cavalry station with a large riding school.

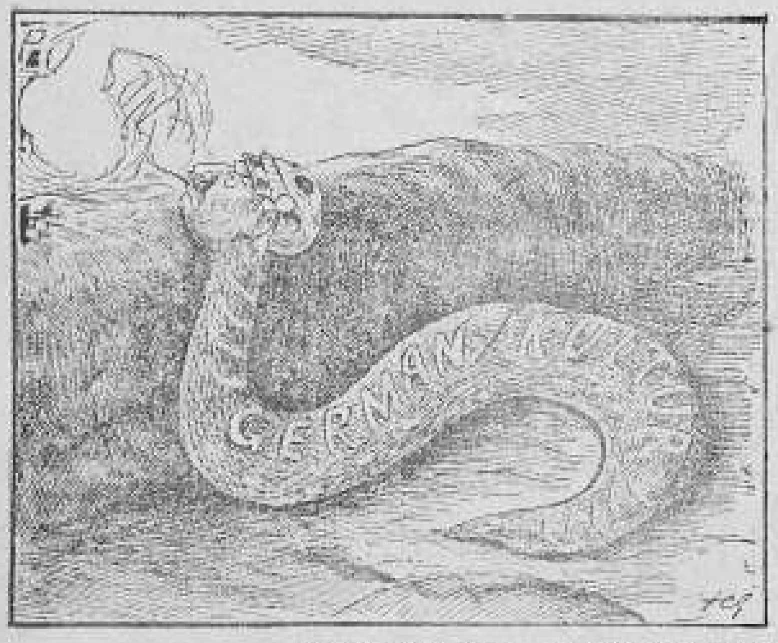
LUTSK, directly east of Lublin. Behind this line of citadels, and covering a longer line, is the Russian third line of defence.

LUXEMBURG is the capital of the grand duchy of the same name situated on the Alzette, a tributary of the Sure. Its population in 1905 was 20,984.

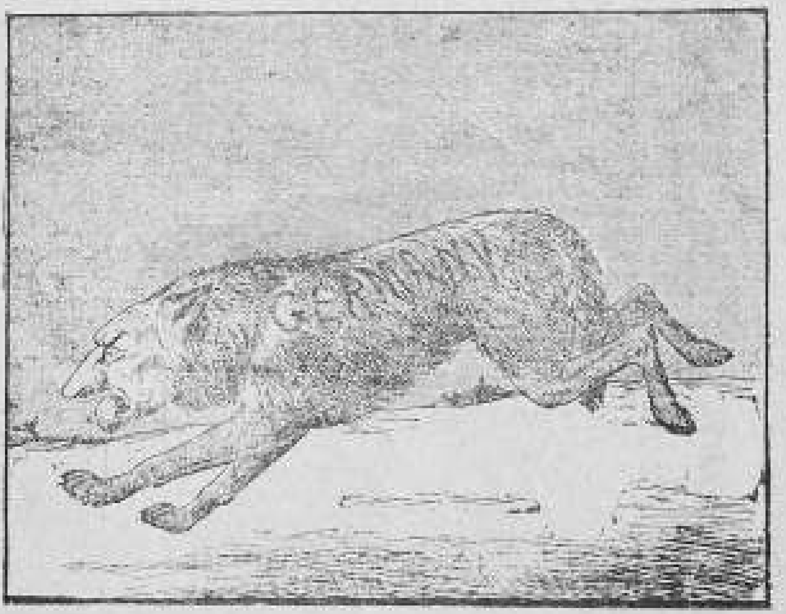


WHERE THE REAL TRIAL OF STRENGTH IS GOING ON.

The Literary Digest.



THE PUFF ADDER. *The Westminster Gazette.*
Now Infesting Flanders.



THE WILD BEAST.

"A wild beast is loose in the world."—*New York Tribune.*

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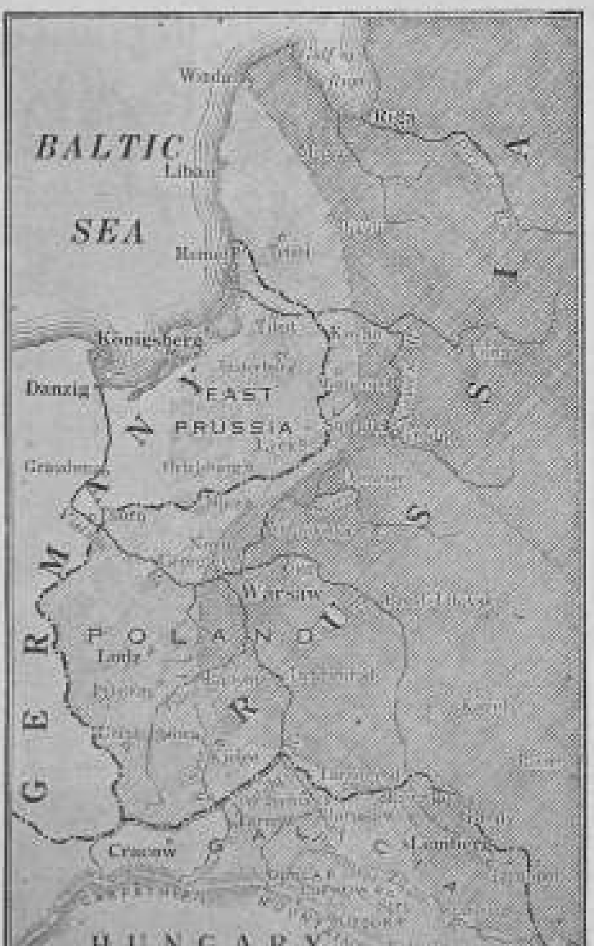

THE RUSSIAN EBB.

The lightly shaded portion marks the farthest Russian gain. The darker shading indicates the ground held by Russia when Lemberg fell.

MAESTRICHT is the capital of the Dutch Province of Limberg, 19 miles north north-east of Liege by rail and 19 miles west north-west of Aix-la-Chapelle, on the left bank of the Meuse or Maas. Population 35,330.

MAIN, of great strategic importance as it forms a direct road from the middle Rhine to the Elbe, avoiding the numerous rivers which flow into the North Sea and traverse the eastern region of Germany.

MAINZ OR MAYENCE.—An ancient city at the junction of the Rhine and Main, has always been one of Germany's most important fortresses.

MALINES.—Occupies a position on the navigable Dyle, some fourteen miles from Antwerp. Its priceless treasures and cathedrals have succumbed to German brutality.

MALTA.—An important British naval base in the Mediterranean. It is midway between Gibraltar and Suez.

MARIANNES is an archepelago in the north-western Pacific Ocean. With the exception of the island of Guam (United States) it belongs to Germany, and administratively forms part of the New Guinea Protectorate.

MARSEILLES.—Marseilles is the second city of France and the principal commercial French port. The Messageries Maritimes, and other great French shipping companies, have their headquarters at Marseilles, which is regarded as the chief port in the Mediterranean.

MARSHALL ISLANDS are a group in the western Pacific Ocean belonging to Germany. These islands have since been occupied by Japan.

MAUBEUGE, a French fortified town on the River Sambre, in the Department of the Nord, is 4 miles to the south of the Belgian city of Mons.

MELLE is a town in North France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Deux-Serres on the left bank of the Berenne, 21 miles east south-east of Niort by rail. There is also a town of this name in Belgium in the region of West Flanders. It lies to the west of Ghent at a distance of 5 miles by rail.

METZ is a town, first class fortress and Episcopal See of Germany, in the province of Alsace-Lorraine, capital of German Lorraine, on the Moselle.

MEUSE, rises in Plateau of Langres. Up to the Belgian frontier it flows in a narrow valley, S. to N., between the Argonnes and Meuse hills.

MINDEN.—A fortified town in Westphalia.

MITROVUZ OR MITROVICA is a town of Croatia-Slavonia, Hungary, situated on the river Save, in the country of Syrmia.

MONS is an ancient town, the capital of the province of Hainault, where a fierce battle was fought.

MONTFAUCON is a small town of 9,800 inhabitants, about 20 miles by road to the north-west of Verdun, in the French Department of the Haute-Loire.

MONTIMIRAIL is a small place in the District of Marne, south south-east of Chalons at a distance of about 40 miles from that place as the crow flies.

MORAVA (Servian) is formed by two streams whose valleys constitute the chief part of the kingdom of Servia.

MOSCISKA.—A small town in Austrian Galicia.

MOSELLE rises in an angle formed by the South Vosges and the Faucilles. It passes Epinal, Toul, Metz, Thionville (all fortresses, the first two in France and the last two in Germany), divides Luxemburg from Rhenish Prussia, and after a tortuous course through a very broken and difficult forest country, joins the Rhine at Coblenz.

MULHAUSEN is the chief town of a circle and the industrial centre of upper Alsace, and lies between the Ill, an affluent of the Rhine, and the Rhine-Rhone Canal.

MUNICH is the capital of Bavaria. It stands in a barren plain, 1,700 ft. above sea-level, on the west bank of the impetuous Isar, a tributary of the Danube. Munich is one of the handsomest cities in Germany and the richest in art treasures.

NAMAQUALAND, the scene of conflict in the early stages of the war otherwise known as the Great Namaland, is a region in South Africa.

NAMUR.—Capital of a province of the same name in Belgium. Picturesquely situated on the Meuse at its junction with the Sambre. Famous for its fortifications.

NANCY is a city in North-Eastern France, the capital of the department of Meurthe-et-Moselle, 219 miles east of Paris on the railway to Strassburg. Nancy is situated on the left bank of the Meurthe 6 miles above its junction with the Moselle and on the Marne Rhine Canal. The railway from Paris to Strassburg skirts the city on the south east side; other railways—to Metz, to Eprial by Mirecourt, to Chateau Salins—join the main line near Nancy, and make it an important junction.

NANTENIL is a town north-east of Paris.

NEISSE, fortress and entrenched camp in the district of Posen.

NECKER (a German river) rises in Black Forest, and joins the Rhine at Mannheim.

NEUFCHATEAU is a town in Belgian Luxemburg on the railway line from Namur to Longwy and about 25 miles north-east of Sedan.

NIKOLAIER, in Russia, has a large dockyard for building ships.

NISH, which is just now the seat of the Servian King, has previously had a place in history. It was there that Constantine the Great, the founder of Constantinople, and the protector of Christians, was born some sixteen centuries ago; and there it was also, about a hundred years later, that Valentinian the First divided the Roman Empire with his brother, Valens. Nish was then called Naissus, and it was the capital of one part of the province of Mœsia, which is now made up of Servia and Bulgaria.

NOGENT-SUR-MARNE.—A town of 11,463 inhabitants about 3 miles from Paris.

NOMENY is a town in North-Eastern France, which lies very near the Franco-German frontier south of Metz.

NOYON is a town of 5,968 inhabitants in the French Department of the Oise, about 15 miles north north-east of Compiegne and 67 miles north of Paris by rail.

NYASSALAND is the unofficial name for a region west and south of Lake Nyassa, the southernmost of the great equatorial lakes of East Africa, and 400 miles

inland from the coast. The Protectorate proper of British Nyassaland is administered by an Imperial Commissioner, whose authority also extends, under the charter of the British South Africa Company to the whole of Northern Rhodesia.

OCHAKOV, Russian fortress and naval basis in the Odessa district.

ODER rises in the Carpathians in Austria, enters Germany, and flows N. W. and N. to the Stettiner-haff. It passes Breslau, Kustrin, where the Warta joins on R. (an immense entrenched camp here), and Stettin a port, about 40 miles from the sea.

ODESSA, an important Russian seaport in the Black Sea. The harbour is large and spacious and is protected by large moles defended by strong works. During the Crimean War (1854) it was bombarded by the British.

OISE is a river in Northern France, tributary to the Seine, flowing south-west from the Belgian frontier and traversing the departments of Aisne, Oise and Seine-at-Paris.

OISSEL is a town on the Seine, 7 miles due South of Rouen by rail, and ten miles to the north and slightly to the west of Louviers.

ORNAIN, a river which runs through the French Department of Marne, first taking a northerly direction and then after flowing past Bar-le-duc turning westwards, and joining the River Blaise at Vitry.

OSTEND is the most fashionable seaside resort in Belgium as well as the second port of the kingdom.

OSTERMOOR, a base of the Kiel Canal, with a harbour and docks for torpedo boats.

OURCE is a river in eastern France south of Troyes.

PALISEUL is a small town in Belgian Luxemberg, 36 miles north north-east of Sedan, and 44 miles south south-east of Givet.

PARIS.—Capital of France, in the department of Seine. Lies on both sides of the River Seine. Is probably the finest fortress in the world. Has a triple girdle of fortifications.

PERM is a large town of 45,500 inhabitants on the River Kama not far from the eastern frontier of Russia and the Ural Mountains.

PERONNE is a town of Northern France, capital of an arrondissement of the department of Somme, on the right bank of the Somme at its confluence with the Cologne, 35 miles east by north of Amiens by rail.

PETROGRAD, St. Petersburg, now re-christened Petrograd, is the capital of the Russian Empire, and stands at the mouth of the Neva in the Gulf of Finland. It was founded by Peter the Great, and with four main lines of railway is the chief port of Russia.

PILLAU.—(In Germany) a fortress defending egress to the Frischer-Hof. Various fortifications defend the entrances of the north to the Kurischer-Hof.

PLOCK, a town of Poland, 60 miles from Warsaw.

POLA.—Population, 45,052 (1900). Has been since 1148 the chief naval harbour and arsenal of Austria-Hungary. The hills which guard the harbour are strongly fortified, and the harbour itself provides a safe refuge, for the Austrian fleet.

PONT-A-MOUSSON is a town in north-eastern France 10 miles from the Franco-German frontier.

POPERINGHE is a Belgian town in West Flanders, four miles from the French frontier, 8 miles west of Ypres by rail and 29 miles west of Courtrai. It manufactures lace, linen and woollen cloth. (Population 11,665).

POSEN, the capital of the Prussian province of that name. It is a fortress of the first rank.

PRZEMYSL is a town of Austria in Galicia, 60 miles west of Lemberg by rail. It is situated on the river San and is one of the strongest fortresses in Galicia.

RAVARUSKA, a northern town of Galicia lies north north-east of Lemberg, at a distance of about 6 miles from that town.

RENAIX or Rennix is a town some 6 miles to the south of Andenarde.

REVAL, naval station on the Gulf of Finland.

REVIGNY or Ronigny is a town in northern France, situated on the railway line between Laon and Origny. It is about 20 miles distant from Laon as the crow flies.

RHEIMS, whose famous Cathedral was bombarded by the Germans, became an archbishopric in the 8th century and from 1179, when Philip Augustus was solemnly crowned there, it became the place for the coronation of the Kings of France. The Cathedral, although the towers (267ft.) of the original design were never finished, is one of the first specimens of Gothic architecture extant.

RHINE rises in St. Gothard (Switzerland), 7,600 feet above sea-level. Next to the Daunbe in importance it is the largest continental river. It has been the scene of tremendous warfare.

RHONE, rises in Mont St Gothard, flows S. W. into and out of Lake Geneva, to Lyon, then due S, to Mediterranean.

RIBEMONT is a town south south-east of St. Quentin at a distance of about 8 miles from that city as the crow flies.

RIGA, in Russia, strongly fortified toward the sea, or rather the River Dvina, is also a naval station.

ROCROY, a French fortress in the Ardennes, two miles from the Belgian frontier and 12 miles to the north and west of Charleville.

ROUEN.—Possessing many notable historic monuments, Rouen is a great manufacturing city on the right bank of the Seine, 87 miles from Paris.

ST. DIE, a French town in the French Department of the Vosges, standing on the River Meurthe, 50 miles by rail south-east of Nancy. (Population 19,600.)

SAINT MENEHOULD is a small French town on the western borders of the Forest of Argonne, 16 miles south south-west of Montfaucon.

SALONIKA, an important seaport town in Turkey.

SAMBOR is a small town in Galicia, 27 miles south south-east of Przemysl.

SAN is a river which rises in the Carpathian mountains and flows through Sanok. It then turns to

the right and swinging away at Przemysl to the north-west, meets the Vistula on the Galician frontier.

SAVE passes near Laybach, where roads converge from Trieste, Pola, and Fiume (on the Adriatic) upon Vienna. The Save joins the Danube at Belgrade, and with the Danube itself forms the N. frontier of Servia.

SCARBOROUGH.—A municipal borough in the east of Yorkshire in England. It is a fashionable watering place. (Population 37,201) Bombarded recently by the Germans.

SCUTARI, a town in Asia Minor, on the Bosphorus and a suburb of Constantinople.

SEBASTOPOL, in the Crimea on the Black Sea, contains a natural harbour. It has long been reserved exclusively as a naval station by Russia.

SEDAN.—A frontier town of France, Sedan is remembered for the surrender in 1870 of Napoleon III., with 83,000 men to the Germans. The fortress was dismantled after 1872.

SCHELDE, passes fortresses of Cambrai, Valenciennes, enters Belgium and passes Ghent and Antwerp (strongly fortified). Below Antwerp the river flows between dykes, where the passage is defended by forts.

SEEWALKI is the chief town of a Russian Province lying along the eastern border of East Prussia.

SERAJEVO, the capital of Bosnia is well fortified. In this city the Archduke Francis Ferdinand was murdered which is the ostensible cause of the present war.

SEINE, rises in the Plateau of Langers. Course generally N. W. except between junction of Aube and Yonne, Tortuous throughout. Chief towns on its banks are:—Troyes, Paris, Rouen and Havre.

SEMLIN is a town in Croatia-Slavonia, in the country of Syrmia, situated beside the south bank of the Danube, on a tongue of land between that river and the Save. Standing at the confluence of two navigable rivers, and on the main-line from Budapest to Constantinople and Salonica, it is the principal station for travellers between Austria-Hungary and the Balkan States.

SENLIS is a town in Northern France, in the department of Oise, on the right side of the Nonette, a left hand affluent of the Oise, 31 miles north north-east of Paris by the northern railway on the branch line (Chantilly-Crepy) connecting the Paris Creil and Paris Soissons lines. Its population in 1906 was 6,674.

SEZANNE is a town in Northern France in the department of Marne, situated on the railway line between Vitry-Le-Francois and Esternay. It is about 40 miles to the west of Vitry-Le-Francois as the crow flies.

SIERADZ is a town of Russian Poland in the Government of Kalisz, situated on the Warta, 110 miles south-west of the city of Warsaw.

SMOLENSK, the famous Russian fortress on the Dnieper. This stronghold, which Napoleon destroyed, is now modern, and the place a railway centre.

SMYRNA, a flourishing seaport town in Asia Minor on the Mediterranean coast.

SOISSONS is a city in Northern France, in the department of Aisne, 65 miles north-east of Paris by the railway to Laon.

SOMME (River), in Northern France rises not far from St. Quentin in the Department of Aisne and flows 150 miles south-west and north-west to the English Channel near St. Valery.

SPANDAU AND MAGDEBURG, fortresses and entrenched camps in the district of Berlin.

SPINCOURT is a small town on the River Othain which is a tributary of the Chier, a river which eventually joins the Meuse. It is 22 miles south south-east of Longwy, the latter place being close to the point where the Grand Duchy and Belgian Luxemberg and the French frontiers meet.

STENAY (2,293 inhabitants) is a French town on the River Meuse, 20 miles west of Longwy, 35 miles north of Etain and 20 miles south of Sedan.

STETTIN.—A port and the capital of the Prussian province of Pomerania fortified from the sea approach. A canal connects this stronghold with the port of Swinemunde.

STOLPEMUNDE.—(In Germany) at the mouth of the Stolpa is a coast defence fort equipped to guard the coasts between the greater streams, the Oder and the Vistula.

STRASSBURG.—Capital of the Imperial Province of Alsace-Lorraine and first-class fortress, garrisoned before the war by the 15th army corps of the German Army.

ST. QUENTIN.—This French town in the department of Aisne on the Somme, 95 miles north-east of Paris, is a centre of cotton industries, which give employment to 130,000 people.

SYDNEY, naval station of the first class, and headquarters of the Australian fleet waters.

TENERIFFE.—A dormant volcano, the highest summit (12,200 ft.) in the Canary Islands.

TERMONDE, which has been the victim of German barbarities in the present war is a town of Belgium in the province of East Flanders.

THEISS rises in the N. E. of Hungary, and after traversing the dreary marshes in endless loops, parallel to the south flowing portion of the Danube, and swollen by many tributaries, joins the Danube midway between Neusatz and Belgrade.

THIAUCOURT is a small French town of 1,192 inhabitants. 28 miles south east of Verdun. Its speciality is the wines of Lorraine.

THORN.—A famous stronghold so far back as the 17th century, Thorn, a town of West Prussia on the banks of the Vistula, has since 1878 been made a fortress of the first rank, the old fortifications being removed, and a series of detached forts built. Copernicus was a native; and a huge bronze statue of him was erected in 1853.

THULN is a town in Belgian Luxemburg, on the River Sambre on the main line between Charleroi and Maubeuge.

TILSIT is a town in the north of East Prussia.

TISZA, GYULAFEHERVAR, ARAD, TEMESVAR. These four fortresses are in Hungary, on the left bank of the Tisa.

TOGOLAND.—A German protectorate in West Africa on the slave coast is one of the finest wireless stations. Occupied by the British soon after the declaration of war.

TOMASZOW, or Tawaszow Fabryczny, an industrial town of Russian Poland, in the government of Piotrkow, 41 miles north east of the town of Piotrkow.

TOUL.—Since the war of 1870 Toul, on the Moselle 20 miles west of Nancy, has been strongly fortified with a cordon of forts. Its cathedral is one of the finest in France.

TOULON in France. Seaport, naval station and fortress of the first rank on the Mediterranean.

TOURNAI is a city of Belgium in the province of Hainault, situated on the Scheldt. It is a very old city dating so far back as the time of Julius Cæsar, and in the course of its long history it has undergone many sieges and was sacked at various epochs by the Vandals, Normans, French and Spaniards. It preserves many monuments of its ancient days. It was near Tournai that the famous battle of Fontenoy was fought on the 11th of May 1745.

TRIANCOURT is a small town at the south of the Forest of Argonne, 18 miles south south-west of Verdun.

TRIESTE.—Most important Austrian seaport. Has a fine harbour recently constructed at a cost of over a million and a half. Over 75 per cent of the population are Italians.

TRIPOLI, in Northern Africa an important seaport and capital of the country of the same name. In the Turko-Italian war it was the scene of much bloodshed.

TROYON is a fortress town on the river Meuse 12 miles south of Verdun in the district of Woevre.

TSIMSH, a town on the north coast of Kiacho Bay.

ULM AND RASTATT, fortresses and entrenched camps in the district of Mainz.

URAL RIVER a tributary of the Volga forming in latter course the boundary between Europe and Asia. On it is *Orenburg*, an important military, commercial and railway centre.

VALENCIENNES.—Once famed for its lace, Valenciennes is a manufacturing town and first-class fortress of France at the entrance of the Rhonelle into the Scheldt.

VARENNES is a town in north-eastern France, situated on the Aire in the department of Meuse. It is some 20 miles to the north-west of Verdun.

VERDUN is a garrison town in north-eastern France, on the main line of the eastern railway between Paris and Metz.

VILVORDE is 8 miles south of Malines and 12 miles north of Brussels.

VISHEGRAD is a town in Bosnia near the north-west frontier of Servia.

VLADIVOSTOK, The Russian fortress in Far Eastern waters.

VISTULA is one of the chief rivers of Europe, rising in Austria and flowing first through Russian and then through Prussian territory. Its source is in Austrian Silesia.

VOLGA, the largest and mightiest river in Europe. It rises in the Valdai plateau. Its banks are strongly fortified between sea and Tsaritsin.

VOSGES, now the scene of fierce strife, is a mountainous chain in Eastern France.

WARMBAD is a town in German territory in the south of Great Namaqualand in South Africa.

WARSAW, capital of Poland and chief town of the government of Warsaw, is the most important fortress of Poland.

WATERLOO, a historic city Belgium and once the scene of one of the greatest decisive battles in the world.

WESER is formed by the union at Munden of the Fulda and the Werra. It is very tortuous, and of general northerly direction. On it is Minden, where the Weser leaves the mountains by a defile called the "Gate of Hanover."

WHITBY.—A seaport in the north-east of Yorkshire in England. In its famous Abbey founded about 757 A.D. by St. Hilda, the poet Caedmon (D C 680) lived, and the Council of Whitby was held.

WILHELMSAFEN.—The chief German naval station on the North Sea.

YPRES, the scene of a fierce battle in the present war, is a town in Belgium.

ZAVICHOST is a town situated on the Russian side of the Russo-Austrian frontier of the Poland just beyond the northernmost Austrian possession in Galica.

ZBRUCZ.—A river forming the boundary between Austrian Galicia and the Russo-Polish province of Podolia.

ZLOCZOW is a town midway between Lemberg and Tarnopol, more than 40 miles east of Lemberg.

We congratulate Mr. Natesan on his enterprise which has uniformly characterised the conduct of the "Indian Review."—*The Hindu.*

Have we a journal like the "Indian Review," so bright, so scholarly, * * One of the ablest and most respectable of Indian Journals.—*The Indian Nation.*

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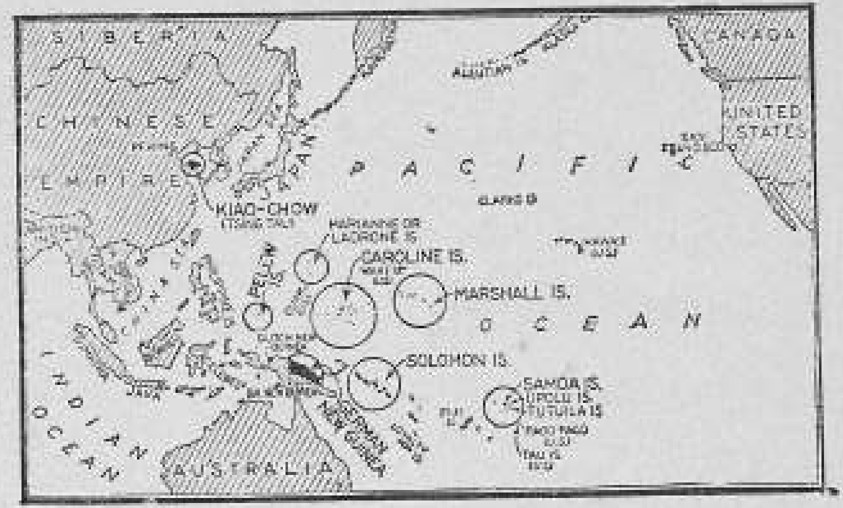
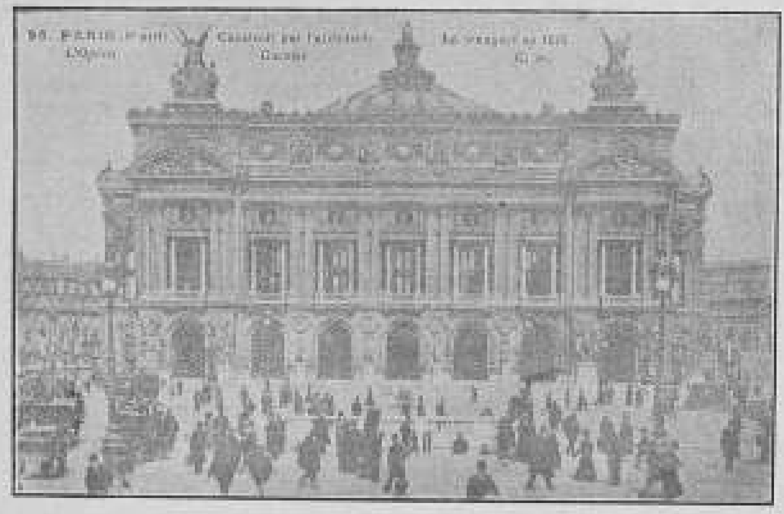


GERMAN COLONIES IN THE EAST.



PARIS OPERA.

PARIS.

DIARY OF THE WAR.

June 22. Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife at Sarajevo.

July 23. Austro-Hungarian ultimatum to Servia.

July 24. The Russian Cabinet considers Austrian action a challenge to Russia.

July 27. Sir E. Grey proposes conference.
France and Italy agree.

July 28. Austria-Hungary declares war against Servia.

July 29. Austrians bombard Belgrade.
Tsar appeals to Kaiser to restrain Austria.

July 30. Russia mobilises sixteen army corps.
Mr. Asquith appeals to all parties to close the ranks.

July 31. State of war declared in Germany.
General mobilisation order in Russia.
London Stock Exchange closed until further notice.

August 1. Germany sends twelve hours' ultimatum to Russia to stop mobilising, declares war, and invades Luxemburg.
Mobilisation in Austria, France, Belgium, and Holland.
Italy declares her neutrality.
Sir John French appointed Inspector-General of the Forces.
British Naval Reserves called up.

August 2. German cruisers bombard Libau and Bona.
British ships seized at Kiel.
Outpost fighting on Russian and French frontiers of Germany.

August 3. Germany declares war against France, and demands right to cross Belgium, regardless of treaty.
German troops envelop Vise and their advance guard approaches Liege.
German Navy captures Aland Islands.
King Albert sends "supreme appeal" to King George.
Sir Edward Grey's great speech in the Commons.
British naval mobilisation completed.
Moratorium Bill passed.

August 4. German troops open the attack on Liege.
German Reichstag authorises an extraordinary expenditure of £265,000,000.
Great Britain declares war on Germany.
British Army mobilisation begins.
Reserves and Territorials are called up.
Mr. Asquith's historic speech in the Commons.
Admiral Sir John Jellicoe appointed to supreme command of the Home Fleets.
The British Government takes control of the railways.

August 5. Fierce fighting at Liege.
Lord Kitchener appointed War Minister.
"Koenigin Louise," German mine layer, sunk off Harwich by H.M.S. "Lance."
British "case" published in White Paper.

August 6. Battle of Liege proceeding.
German attack slackened at night.
H.M.S. "Amphion" sunk in North Sea by floating mine: 131 lives lost.
Lord Kitchener asks for 500,000 recruits, 100,000 to be raised forthwith.
Vote of credit for £100,000,000 agreed to by the Commons nem. con.

August 7. Germans refused armistice at Liege.
Prince of Wales' National Relief Fund opened.
New £1 and 10s. banknotes issued and postal-orders made legal tender.

August 8. French troops occupy Altkirch and Mulhausen.
German Togoland taken.
Help offered by British Overseas Dominions.
French and Belgian troops co-operating in Belgian territory.

August 9. German troops in Liege town.
Servians invade Bosnia.
Austria sends troops to help Germans.
German submarine U15 sunk by H.M.S. "Birmingham."

August 10. Diplomatic relations between France and Austria broken off.
French fall back from reconnaissance in Mulhouse, but take up passes in the Vosges.
Austria and Montenegro at war.
Enrolment of first batch of 30,000 special constables for London area.

August 11. German concentration on Metz-Liege line.
Russian troops drive back Austrian outposts in Styr Valley.
2,000 German spies reported to have been arrested in Belgium.

August 12. England and Austria at war.
German cruisers "Goeben" and "Breslau" enter Dardanelles, and are purchased by Turkey.

August 13. Battle of Haelen, between Liege and Brussels ends according to the Belgian War Office, "all to the advantage of the Belgian forces."
Swedish Reichstag decides on an expenditure of £2,800,000 for defence purposes.
Austrian-Lloyd steamer sunk by mine in Adriatic.
German "official" news first sent to London by wireless.
German steamer captured on Lake Nyassa.

August 14. Two million Russian troops reported to be on the German frontier, two millions on the Austrian frontier, half a million on the Turkish frontier, and half a million on the Rumanian frontier.
French war credit of £40,000,000 authorised.
General Von Emmich, German commander at Liege, reported dead.

August 15. The Prince of Wales' National Relief Fund reaches £1,000,000.
British Press Bureau issues warning against alarmist rumours.
Taveta, British East Africa, occupied by Germans.

August 16. French drive Germans back at Dinant.
Tsar promises home rule to a re-united Poland.

August 17. It is reported officially that the British Expeditionary Force has landed safely in France.
Belgian Government removes from Brussels to Antwerp.
Japan asks Germany to remove her warships from Japanese and Chinese waters, and to evacuate Kiaochau by August 23rd.
French Fleet sinks small Austrian cruiser in the Adriatic.

Austrian torpedo-boat sunk by mine.
Tsar and Tsaritsa enthusiastically welcomed in Moscow.

August 18. Desultory fighting in North Sea.
French advance in Alsace-Lorraine.

August 19. German advance on line between Diest and Luxemburg.
Louvain occupied.

August 20. Abandoned for strategical reasons, Brussels is formally entered by the Germans.
The French retake Mulhausen.

August 21. German war levies of £8,000,000 on Brussels and £2,400,000 on the province of Liege.
British loan of £10,000,000 to Belgium announced.
Partial investment of Namur.

August 22. War Relief Fund, £1,450,000.
New Austrian mobilisation order calling out every man capable of bearing arms.
Austrian battleship *Zrinyi* sunk by French fleet.
Germans occupy Ghent, Ostend, and Alost.
German artillery attack on Namur in progress.
France protests to the Hague Powers against German use of dum-dum bullets.
Complete victory of Servians over Austrians after four days' battle near Loznitza.
Belgians retire from Tirlemont.
France and Russia as well as Britian agree to observe provisions of Declaration of London.

August 23. Japan declares war on Germany.
Liege and Namur still holding out.

August 24. Germans routed by Russians after six days' fighting along the front and the Russians occupy Johannesburg and Ortelsburg in East Prussia.
Japanese are bombarding Tsingtau.
Namur falls. Desperate battle in progress all along frontier from Namur to Mons.
A Zeppelin threw bombs over Antwerp, two houses being destroyed and several persons killed.
The airship was brought down by guns and captured.

August 25. French and English troops fall back, while Germans are forced to occupy new positions.
Germans bombard Malines.
Uhlans driven back by Belgians.
French troops make four counter-attacks from Nancy.
German attack on southern French frontier repulsed.
Germans forced to retire all along the line.
Russians occupy Gumbinnen.
Germans raid Namaqualand.

August 26. Austrian Ambassador in Tokio recalled.
Togoland surrenders unconditionally.
Battle at Verdun, Lorraine, between French and Germans. Germans repulsed.
Russians cross the Dniester in Galicia.

August 27. French Cabinet resigns and a New National Defence Cabinet formed.
Austrians evacuate the Sanjak of Novi Bazar.
German cruiser *Magdeburg* blown up by Russian ships.
British forces engaged with five German Army corps and successfully protect French flank.
The French assume the offensive in the Vosges.
Ostend occupied by British marines.
Mr. Asquith moves in Parliament a Resolution of sympathy with and admiration for Belgians.
H. M. S. *Highflyer* sinks armed German merchantman *Kaiser Wilhelm*.
Kaiser's Nephew captured at Courtrai.

August 28. Russians occupy Tilsit.
Germans attack eastern Belgian Congo.
Earl Kitchener announces that three divisions of Indian troops will be sent to France.
British fleet near Heligoland sinks 3 German cruisers and 2 destroyers.
Germans burn down Louvain.

August 29. Fierce battle proceeding all along the Franco-Belgian frontier (Cambrai to Mezieres).
Koenigsberg completely invested by Russians.
Heavy fighting at Marchiennes and Pontamarq.

August 30. Fighting reported at Bapaume, near Amiens.
Germans repulsed at Guise.
German Army advances up the Somme River.

August 31. Fighting in the Meuse district, in Lorraine and in the region of the Vosges.

September 1. Fighting near Compiegne.

September 2. Russian reverse in Eastern Prussia.
Defeat of the Austrians by the Russians at Lemberg.
First official list of casualties (5,127) sustained by the British Expeditionary Force in France issued.

September 3. H. M. S. *Speedy* and steam-drifter *Linsdell* sunk by mines in the North Sea.
Removal of the French Government from Paris to Bordeaux.
Rheims occupied by the Germans.

September 4. Partial destruction of Termonde by German troops.
Malines abandoned by the Belgian Army.
German advance on Antwerp abandoned owing to the floods caused by the opening of the dykes.
Severe German reverse at Cappelle au Bois reported.
Ten British trawlers reported missing in the North Sea.
Arrival at Kiel of several German destroyers and torpedo boats in a damaged condition.
Second British casualty list (5,218) issued.
Bulgarian neutrality reaffirmed.

September 5. Agreement signed by Great Britain, France, and Russia not to conclude peace separately during the war, or to command peace conditions without the consent of each other.
H.M.S. *Pathfinder* blown up by a submarine off the Coast of England.

September 6. Battle of the Marne begun.
Sir John French's Report on the war issued.
Wilson liner *Runo* sunk by a mine off the East Coast of England.

September 7. German advance in Northern France checked by the Allies.
Fall of Maubeuge.
War levies demanded by Germany from France and Belgium to date £28,412,000.
Third British casualty list (4,796) issued.

September 8. Forced retirement of the German Army in Northern France reported.
Destruction of Dinant by German troops.
Ghent saved from bombardment and the imposition of a fine by the Burgomaster who made terms with the German Commander.
Wreck of armed cruiser 'Oceanic' off the North Coast of Scotland.
Invasion of Bosnia-Herzegovina by the Servian Army.

September 9. Sir John French's Second Report issued. Despatch of 70,000 Indian troops to the seat of war announced.
German and Austrian Consulates in Egypt closed by the Government.

September 10. Retreat over the Marne of the German right wing.
Prince Joachim of Prussia wounded.
Complete destruction of Termonde by German troops. Later re-occupied by Belgian troops.
Bridge of Senlis blown up by the Germans.
The Russian victory in Lublin reported.
Semlin, Hungary, occupied by the Servian Army.
German invasion of Nyassaland repulsed.
Despatch of troops to German South-West Africa announced by General Botha.

September 11. Vitry abandoned by the German centre army.
Fourth British casualty list (3,588) issued total to date 18,729.
Capture of Hamburg America liner *Bethania* reported.
Herberts-höhe, New Pomerania, and the German Solomon Islands, taken by the Australian Navy.

September 12. General German retreat continued.
Heavy fighting in the Aisne district began.
Further list of casualties in the Expeditionary Force issued.
German Hamburg-America liner *Spreewald*, fitted as armed merchant cruiser, and two German colliers captured by the *Berwick* in North Atlantic waters.

September 13. Rheims re-occupied by the French. German invasion of British East Africa announced.

September 14. Evacuation of Nancy by the German Army.
German armed liner *Cape Trafalgar* sunk by armed Cunard liner *Carmania* off the South American coast; 9 lives lost by the *Carmania*.

September 10-14. Raid of the German cruiser *Emden* in the Bay of Bengal, capturing six British ships—*Indus*, *Lovat*, "Killin," "Diplomat," "Trabbock," and "Kabinga"; the first five ships were sunk, the "Kabinga" being spared and sent to Calcutta with all the crews.

September 15. Second report of the Belgian Commission of Inquiry on the conduct of the German troops in Belgium issued.
German light cruiser "Hela" sunk by a British submarine in the North Sea. Glasgow steamer "Clan Matheson" sunk by German cruiser "Emden" in the Bay of Bengal.

September 16. Complete rout of the Austrian Army in Galicia, and failure of the rescue attempted by German troops.
Gunboat "Dwarf" rammed by German merchant ship "Nachtigall" on the Cameroon River, and wreck of the "Nachtigall" reported.

September 17. Fortification of Cologne and other German cities reported.
Third battle at Termonde and further incendiarism by the Germans reported. Austrian army reported to be completely disorganised.
German evacuation of Kladislawau and other towns.
Germans driven out of their fortified position in Laoshan Bay by the Japanese.

September 18. Capture by Russians of the fortified positions of Seniava and Sambor reported. Loss (on or about the 14th) of the Australian submarine AE1 reported; 34 lives lost.
Lüderitz, German South-West Africa, occupied by the South African Defence Force.

September 19. Bombardment and destruction of Rheims Cathedral by the Germans.

September 20. Servian repulse of Austrians near Novibazar.
Semlin evacuated by the Servians.
Cruiser "Pegasus" surprised and disabled by the German cruiser "Konigsberg" in Zanzibar harbour; 33 lives lost by the "Pegasus."
Two German launches, one carrying explosives, destroyed by the "Cumberland" in the neighbourhood of the Cameroons.

September 21. Denunciation by the French Government of the destruction of Rheims Cathedral by the Germans.
Rout of 150,000 Austrians by the Servians near Krupagne on the Drina, and the capture of Rogaritza in Bosnia by the Servians reported.

September 22. The cruisers "Aboukir," "Hogue" and "Cressy" sunk by German submarines in the North Sea, and two German submarines lost.
Bomb attack on Zeppelin sheds at Dusseldorf by British aeroplanes.
Jaroslau occupied by the Russians.
Destruction of German wireless station on the island of Nauru reported, thus leaving Germany without any wireless station in the Pacific.
The German cruiser "Emden" reported to have thrown shells into Madras.

September 23. Recapture of Liubovia on the Drina by the Servians reported.
German cruiser and two torpedo boats reported to have been sunk in the Baltic by the Russian warship "Bayan."
General Botha announced to take supreme command of the operations against German South-West Africa.
The Norwegian steamer "Hesvik" destroyed by mines in the North Sea.
British troops landed at Laoshan Bay to assist the Japanese.

September 24. Peronne reported to be occupied by a French detachment.
Bombardment of Cattaro.
Further bombardment of Rheims Cathedral.
German reverse in East Prussia.
Zeppelin raid on Ostend; 5 bombs dropped.
Steamer "Indian Prince," bound from Rio de Janeiro for Trinidad and New York, reported to have been sunk by German cruiser "Kronprinz Wilhelm."

September 25. Bombs dropped from aeroplane at Boulogne.
Fighting begun in St. Quentin-Tergnier district.
Town and harbour of Friedrich Wilhelm in German New Guinea occupied by Australian forces.
Official story of the three cruisers lost on the 22nd published; 837 survivors and over 1,000 lives lost.
Surrender to British force of Schuckmannsburg, German post in South-West Africa, reported.

September 26. Russian occupation of Rzeszow reported.
The eastern frontier of Holland declared to be under martial law.

French boat reported to have captured Cocobeach in the Cameroons.

September 27. Bombardment and occupation of Malines by German troops.

September 28. Bombardment of the outer Antwerp forts.
Surrender of Duala (capital of the Cameroons) and of Bonaberi to an Anglo-French force officially announced.

September 29. Heavy bombardment of Antwerp forts continued.
Alost retaken by the Germans.
Semlin retaken by the Serbs.
Navigation in the Adriatic suspended temporarily on account of the danger caused by floating mines and a protest sent to Austria by Italy.
Sinking of British steamers *King Lud*, *Foyle*, *Tymeric*, and *Ribera*, and capture of British collier *Buresk* in the Indian Ocean by German cruiser *Emden* reported; crews landed at Colombo.

September 30. Heavy bombardment of Antwerp forts continued.
Agreement of Austria to pay Italy an indemnity of £200,000 for losses caused by mines in the Adriatic reported.
Neutrality of Greece reaffirmed.

October 1. Destruction of Lierre forts by German troops, who were repulsed with heavy losses.
Sinking of British steamer *Bankfields* by German steamer "Leipzig" off Peru reported.
Repulse of German troops at Tracy-le-Mont reported.

October 2. Mine-laying in certain areas authorised by the British Government.
Bombardment of the Belgian trenches; and retirement of the Belgians to the banks of the River Nethe.
German defeat in the provinces of Lodz and Suwalki announced.
Capture of nine German merchant steamers off the Cameroon River in West Africa by H.M.S. "Cumberland" reported.

October 3. Steamers "Tromsoe," "Dawdon," "Selby," and "Nieuwland," sunk by mines in the North Sea.
Battle of Augustow ended in a victory for the Russian troops; whole German regiments reported to have been drowned in the Niemen.
Departure from Petrograd of the Tsar for the theatre of war.

October 4. M. Poincare, accompanied by M.M. Millerand and Viviani, left Bordeaux on a visit to the troops in the field.
Bombardment of Lierre continued.

October 5. British steamer Ardmount sunk by a mine in the North Sea.
Occupation of Lierre and Duffel by German troops.

October. 6. Departure from Antwerp for Ostend of King Albert, the Government and the Foreign Ministers.

October. 7. Bombardment of Antwerp City begun.
Destruction of a German torpedo-boat destroyer off the Ems River by British submarine E9 reported.
Decision of the Canadian Cabinet to send a second Expeditionary Force to Europe announced.

October. 8. Bombardment of Antwerp City continued; flight of the population and retirement of British and Belgian forces during the night; several thousands were cut off by a German attack and entered Dutch territory, where they were interned.

October. 9. Fall and occupation of Antwerp; and levy of a war fine of £20,000,000.

October. 10. Occupation of the Lyck by Russian troops reported.
Fifth report of the Belgian Commission of Inquiry on the rules of International Law by Germany issued.
Successful raid on the Zeppelin sheds at Dusseldorf by British naval airmen announced.

October. 11. Two German aeroplanes flew over Paris and dropped several bombs, one damaging Notre Dame: 4 deaths.
Russian warship "Pallada" sunk in the Baltic by a German submarine and all hands lost; later, two German submarines were also sunk.
Reception by the Russian Commander-in-Chief of eleven war correspondents who had received permission to go to the front.

October 12. Destruction of the engines of thirty-two German merchant vessels and twenty Rhine steamers at Antwerp reported.
Iltis fort, Tsingtau, silenced by Japanese cruisers.

October 13. Departure from Ostend for Havre of the Belgian Government.
Proclamation issued by the German Commander of Antwerp advising the refugees to return.
Occupation of Lille by German troops.
Ypres taken by Anglo-French forces.

October 14. Occupation of Ghent by German troops.

October 15. Occupation of Ostend by German troops.
Arrival of the German advance guard at Tournai: the commanding officer demanded a war contribution of £80,000 within two hours, and seized 200 citizens as hostages; the sum was paid and the men released.

October 16. H.M.S. "Hawke" sunk by a German submarine in the North Sea; 524 officers and men reported missing.
Sinking of Hamburg-America liner "Markomannia" and capture of Greek steamer "Pontoporos" off Sumatra by H.M.S. "Yarmouth" announced.

October 17. Four German destroyers sunk off the Dutch coast by British light cruiser "Undaunted," aided by four British destroyers.
Gulfs of Riga and Finland closed to shipping on account of Russian and German mines.
Japanese cruiser "Ta Rachiho" sunk by a mine in Kiaochau Bay.

October 18. British submarine E3 reported missing in the North Sea.

October 19. Despatches from Sir John French dealing with the battles of the Aisne and Marne published.
German troops driven back thirty miles in Flanders.
Bombardment of the German right by British warships off the Belgian coast begun.

October 20. Repulse of German troops by the Allies at Nieuport, Dixmude and La Bassee.
British steamer "Glitra" sunk off the Norwegian coast by a German submarine; crew landed at Skudesnas.

Occupation (for military purposes only) of the Marianne and Marshall Islands and the East and West Caroline Archipelagoes by Japan announced.

October 21. Heavy fighting between Belgian and German troops on the banks of the Yser.
The German Army reported to be in full flight from Warsaw.
Sinking of British steamers "Chiltana," "Troilus," "Benmohr," "Clan Grant," and dredger "Ponrabbel" in the Indian Ocean by German cruiser "Emden" reported; British steamers "Exford" and St. "Egbert" were also captured and the latter sent to Cochin with passengers and crews.

October 22. Notification issued by the British Government of the removal by the Egyptian Government of all enemy ships using the ports of the Suez Canal as ports of refuge.
Naval despatches published dealing with the action off Heligoland on August 28.

October 23. Sinking of thirteen British ships in the Atlantic by German cruiser "Karlsruhe" reported; crews landed at Teneriffe.

October 24. From the sea to the region south of Arras violent attacks by the enemy were repulsed by the Allies.
German submarine rammed and sunk off the Dutch coast by British destroyer "Badger."
Invasion of Angola, Portuguese West Africa, by German troops announced.

October 25. Crossing of the Yser by German forces between Nieuport and Dixmunde reported.

October 26. Fierce fighting on the banks of the Yser continued.

October 27. Shipping prohibited within sixty miles of Tory Island.
Removal of the German Headquarters Staff from Ostend to Heyst.
Fierce fighting between Russians and German forces in the Jezow and Rawa region reported.

October 28. Progress by the Allies between Cambrai and Arras reported.
Defeat of German forces by Belgian forces at Ki-Senie, Lake Tanganyika, announced.

October 29. Result of the trial of the assassins and others implicated in the conspiracy to kill the late Archduke Ferdinand and his wife reported; the principals sentenced to death and the others to long terms of imprisonment.
Occupation of Northern Epirus by Greece approved by the Powers.

October 30. Wreck of Government hospital ship "Rohilla" off Whitby; over 70 lives lost.

October 31. Resignation of the Italian Cabinet.
Occupation of Saseno by Italy.
Purchase of the "Peking Gazette" by Germans, who also took over the financial control of the entire native press.
Gift of £100,000 to Belgium from the Australian Commonwealth announced.

November 4. The moratorium ended.
Inspection of the Canadian Contingent on Salisbury Plain by the King and Queen.
Elections in the United States.

November 5. Formation of a new Italian Cabinet with Signor Salandra as Premier and Minister of the Interior.
The 1913 agreement for locking the Murray, Murrumbidgee and Darling Rivers for navigation and irrigation confirmed by the Commonwealth Governments—New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia.

November 6. Belgian Committee to help Belgian refugees in the United Kingdom appointed by the Belgian Government.

November 9. Lord Mayor's Day in London.
Bestowal of a peerage on Mr. Walter Cunliffe.

November 10. Germans foiled at Ypres.
The Austro-German line broken.
Retirement on Cracow and Posen.
British occupation of Fao.

November 11. Russian occupation of Soldau.
The Guildhall Banquet: Review of the war.
End of the *Emden* and *Koenigsberg*.
Attack on Caucasian fort by *Breslau* driven off.

November 12. Fierce fighting in Armentieres.
Germans driven back in East Prussia.
Germans defeated at Lyck.
Warta positions abandoned.
German offers of peace rejected by Russia.
Turks repulsed in Armenia.
Germans in the Congo driven out by French.

November 13. Germans capture Dixmude.
German Artillery reinforcement at Ypres.
Russians nearing Masurian Lakes.
Vigorous offensive in Galicia.
Re-opening of British Parliament by H. M. the King.
Niger sunk off Deal torpedoed by German submarine.
Turks repulsed in Armenia.
Russians occupy Alaschkert Valley.

November 14. The fight for Ypres.
Russians capture Johannisberg.
Re-investment of Przemysl.
General Botha defeats rebel commando.
Turks routed in Armenia.

November 15. Struggle for the Masurian Lakes.
Russian investment of Cracow.

November 16. Severe fighting in Argonne.
Death of Earl Roberts on field of battle in France.
German retreat from Thorn.
Turkish contemplated attack on Suez Canal abandoned.
Two German submarines sunk in Straits of Dover.
Austrian cruiser and German boats sunk at Tsingtao.

November 17. Battle developing from Plock to Warta River.
Russian advance on the Carpathian Passes.
Russian War levies on Prussian towns.
British War Bill passed; a War loan of £350 millions.
King George's statement.

November 18. German attempt to cross the Aisne repulsed.
Germans driven from left bank of the Meuse.
Bombardment of Rheims renewed.
Investment of Cracow; German retirement.

November 19. Germans using expanding bullets.
Capture of Shaik Said and forts.
German-mine-laying activity; British retaliation.

November 20. Fighting at Ypres.
Severe attacks on British repelled with great loss.
Russian advance in East Prussia on Masurian Lakes.
Rupture of relations between Turkey and Japan.
Russians bombard Trebizond and capture of Datah.
Naval action in Black Sea.
Goeben badly damaged.
German Fleet in Baltic bombards Libau.

November 21. Desperate fighting on the Vistula.

November 22. Serious situation in East Prussia.
Russian Fleet in Black Sea bombards Khops.
Turkish defeat near Erzeroum.

November 23. Persistent German attacks at Woevre.
The aerial raid on Frederickshaven Zeppelin shed.
The German march on Warsaw failed.
Attack on Black Sea Port by the *Hamidieh*.
Conference of Allied Ambassadors in Italy.

November 24. Struggle for Ypres.
Heavy cannonade in Soissons and Vailly.
Sir Arthur Barrett's occupation of Basrah.

November 25. Bombardment of Zeebrugge by British warships.
Reported bombardment of Cracow.
Russian successes in Armenia.

November 26. The battle of Lodz.
Severe defeat of Germans.
Portuguese intervention in the war.

November 27. Four warships bombarding Zeebrugge returned to port.
A battle proceeding in Serbia, at Lazarevatz.
Persia reaffirms her strict neutrality.
The Government of India prohibits absolutely all navigation of aircraft over or into British India, including territorial waters.

November 28. Statement in House of Commons by Mr. Churchill about present Naval situation.
Dixmude retaken by French Marines.
Joffre receives Medal from President Poincaré.
2,000 Austrians captured near Bochnia; also 10 guns.
Montenegrin victory over eight Austrian battalions.

November 29. Ameer of Afghanistan has declared neutrality with reference to the war with Turkey and has expressed regret at the Ottoman action.

November 30. Sir John French's despatch.
Germany apologises for the invasion of Angola.

December 1. Germans on the defensive in Belgium.
Troops transferred to Eastern Theatre.
Kaiser leaves for eastern frontier.
Germany's impudent offer to the Mikado.

December 2. King George visits France.
Struggle for Ypres.
German's half-hearted attacks.
Stubborn fighting at Lodz.
Russian successes in the Carpathians.
Turks routed in Euphrates Valley.
Trouble in Somaliland.

December 3. King George at the front.
Fighting south of Ypres, good work of Allied Cavalry.
Secret movement of German troops.
Successful Russian offensive at Lasks.
Tsar leaves for the front.
Austrian invasion of Serbia.
Belgrade evacuated.
Neutrality of Italy and Persia.

December 4. King George at the front.
Germans fortifying Belgian Coast.
Aerial raid on Essen.
German Chancellor's diatribe against Great Britain.
French Parliament to reassemble in Paris.
Russian advance on Cracow progressing.
Battle of Lodz, General Rennenkampf suspended.
Serious situation at Przemysl.
Austrian occupation of Belgrade.
Defence of Egypt.
Australian and New Zealand Contingents.

December 5. King George at the front.
British position strengthened.
Steady progress of the Allies.
French activity in Alsace.
German offensive at Lowicz.
Russians capture Bartfield in the Carpathians.
The defence of Suez Canal and Port Said.

December 6. King George and King Albert meet in France.
French advance in Alsace.
Germans reinforced the Yser front.
French successes north of Lys.
Bombardment of Rheims.
Kaiser indisposed, returns to Berlin.
Obstinate fighting at Lowicz and near Lodz.
Attitude of Italy, statement by Premier.
Attitude of Romania.

December 7. King George returns to London.
Evacuation of Vermelles by Germans.
Retirement on the Yser.
Fierce fighting round Lodz.
Further particulars of Italy's attitude.
Russian successes in Caucasia.
Capture of De Wet.

December 8. Official report of King's visit to the Front.
Allies progress on the Yser.
French activity in Alsace.
Russian position maintained in Eastern Theatre.
Austrian reverses in Serbia.
Turkish cruiser *Hamidieh* disabled by a mine.

December 9. Advance of the Allies in Flanders.
Aerial raid on Friedrickshafen.
Protest by Swiss Government.
Stalemate in East Prussia.
Russian evacuation of Lodz.
The advance on Cracow.
Russian successes in Armenia.

December 10. Allies' advance on Ostend.
French progress in Argonne and on the Meuse.
German activity on the East.
A turning movement foiled.
Austrians retreating from Serbia.
The Boer revolt, tragic death of Commandant Beyers.
Lieut.-General Sir J. Wolfe-Murray appointed Chief of the General Staff in succession to the late General Douglas.

December 11. French Cabinet to meet in Paris.
General von Falkenhayn gazetted acting chief of the German General Staff.

December 12. Turkish battleship *Messudieh* torpedoed and sunk in the Dardanelles.

December 13. Servians re-enter Belgrade.

December 14. Italian Foreign Minister announces that the Government has demanded from Turkey immediate reparation for the Hodedish incident.

December 15. German naval raid on East Coast. German squadron consisting of two battle cruisers bombarding Hartlepool, Scarborough and Whitby and one armoured cruiser appear off Hartlepool at 8 A.M. and bombard the town and fort for 35 minutes. The coast batteries replied and hit the enemy who retired. British casualties: killed 82, wounded 250. Simultaneously a light cruiser attacked the defenceless towns of Scarborough and Whitby.

December 16. German submarine trial at Bruges.
Another air raid on Freiburg.
Two Austrian destroyers sunk by mines.
Servian victory at Valjevo.

December 17. Geman naval raid on Scarborough, Whitby and Hartlepool.
British naval bombardment of Belgian coast.
Belgian success on left bank of the Yser.
Germans repulsed in Alsace.
Germans concentrating on Vistula.
Serbians re-capture Belgrade.

December 18. Egypt declared a British Protectorate.
Statements from Petrograd that the Kaiser ordered the capture of Warsaw at all costs.
Germans defeated and vigorously pursued on the Mlava front.
The German Cruiser *Friedrich Karl* sunk in the Baltic.
The bombardment of Gulf of Saros put the Turks to flight.
Conference between the Scandinavian monarchs.

December 19. The death is announced of Lieutenant Hardinge, son of the Viceroy.
France recognises the British Protectorate over Egypt.
According to Dutch reports of the violent fighting on the Yser, the artillery from the British fleet is said to play havoc in the German ranks.
The Allies have gained ground near Nieuport.
The Scandinavian Monarchs' meeting at Malmoe is officially stated to have been a success.

December 20. The French gain ground south of Dixmude.
The new Sultan of Egypt was solemnly installed.
The Aga Khan has arrived at Cario to assist in the ceremony of accession of Sultan Hussain.
The rebel leader Captain Fourie was court-martialled and shot.
The Scandinavian Kings' Conference has terminated. The three countries will assist each other in preserving neutrality.

December 21. A sortie from Przemysl failed.
An Italio-Rumanian League formed to strengthen the bonds uniting the two countries.
A German hydroplane dropped two bombs on Calais.
The Kaiser returns to the front.
Progress was made by the Russians round Przemysl.
The Russians seized part of the defensive works.
The Austrian offensive in Galicia definitely checked.
The Germans in the Mlava region retired to the line of Lauenburg-Neidenburg.

December 22. The Russians maintain their position in the Bzura river.
Russians pushing back Germans in the Mazawa direction.
Russians retiring from Piturkow to Opoczno 25 miles further east.

December 23. The French gain a footing at Boureuilles.
The Russians are strengthening their position on the Vistula.
An airman drops bombs in Strasburg.
The Germans attack Angola.

December 24. Better progress is being made, owing to additional men and guns, in West Flanders.
The bombardment from the sea, on the German right wing in West Flanders.
An Austrian submarine torpedoeing a French battleship causing no harm.
A German aeroplane drops a bomb in a Dover garden.
Turko-German troops defeated near the Van.
Troops from Przemysl made a sortie, but are defeated.

December 25. A vigorous general advance of the Allies.
An enemy aeroplane passes over Sheerness.
The *Dresden* escapes to Chille.
A German regiment is cut off in Poland.

December 26 to 28. Air raid at Cuxhaven.
Considerable damage was done to the German ships.
The Germans in Central Poland suffering grave losses in an abortive attack to the south-east of Skierniwice.
The Austrians definitely evacuated the left of the Nida.
South of Upper Vistula fighting continues to develop favourably to the Russians.
The Austrian retreat towards Dukla Pass in the Carpathians.
German advance on the Bzura is stopped.

December 29. It is announced that Russia has captured 15,000 prisoners in a week's fighting.

December 30. Indian troops inspected by H. H. the Aga Khan at Cairo.
Emden's Captain is interned in England.
Russians have repulsed the Turks in the Nordensk region.
Allies' advance in Nieuport district, and consolidate the ground gained all over the front.

December 31. The Bank of France has been removed back again to Paris.
Seven German airships drop bombs on Dunkirk.
Russians advance victoriously in Western Galicia.
An Austrian battleship is torpedoed by a French submarine, but being near the docks, escapes there.
Strong Turkish column is routed by Russia.
Germans are driven off from the Bzura.

January 1. The battleship *Formidable* is sunk in the British Channel.
Six new Armies are created.
Half the village of Steinbach is occupied.

January 2. 201 of the *Formidable's* men are reported saved.
Belgians take a gun down canal, land it and drive off Germans, six steersmen being shot one after another on the way.

January 3. Flight Commander Hewlett leaves Ymuiden for England.
Austrian flight across Carpathians becomes a rout.
All German attacks on the east are foiled.
French offensive is progressing in Alsace.

French aviators bombard Metz.
Further progress is made in Steinbach.
2nd Wessex Division arrives in Bombay.

January 4. Steinbach is captured by French.
Progress is made in Upper Alsace.
Russia, having captured several towns on the Rumanian frontier, holds the strategic railways to western Galicia and Hungary.
Anti-German feeling in Constantinople.

January 5. Another vain attack on Steinbach.
Considerable progress eastwards of Nieuport.
The advance towards Tahnu holds its ground.
A company is formed in Frankfort to store corn.
Thirty Commissions have been given to non-commissioned officers for services in the field.
The Russians are advancing rapidly through south-east Galicia towards Hungary.
In the Uzok Pass a whole battalion surrenders.
The Turkish 9th Army Corps, with its General and three Divisional Commanders, is captured.
The Germans arrest Cardinal Mercier.
General Joffre says the Allies are preparing for their final victory.

January 6. An agreement between the belligerents to exchange incapacitated prisoners of War is published.
Unsuccessful attacks by Germans in Flanders.
A Rumanian statesman says that Rumania will join the War in the spring.

January 7. French advance towards Mulhausen.
Some progress eastward of Nieuport is made.
The Russian victories at Ardahan.
The Revolution in Albania is spreading.

January 8. Active cannonading in Flanders and Arras.
A steady advance all along the front is reported.
Two Turkish transports are sunk.
The convoying Turkish cruiser escapes.
Preparations to evacuate Constantinople.

January 9. H. M. the King visits the Indian wounded at Brighton.
Recruiting for the Indian Army is reported good.
Germany tries to explain the Mercier incident.
French Premier's son is killed.
The Russians are crossing Bukovina.
The Dutch loan is badly subscribed.

January 10. A report arrives of a German Army Order, threatening any soldiers who exchange little courtesies with the enemy with the penalties of high treason.

January 11. Sixteen German aeroplanes appear over the British Channel, approaching England.
A German aeroplane over Amiens is brought down by French.
The Uhlans reappear in Flanders.
The Russian warships in Black Sea damage Turkish war-ships.

January 12. Two German aeroplanes approach Paris.
Albanian insurgents occupy Ruspol.
Hungarian peasants are rising.

January 13. The Turks occupy Tabriz.
Heavy fighting goes on in the Caucasus.
Germans attempt to resume the offensive in North Poland.

January 14. Furious fighting east of Rheims and in North Soissons.

January 15. Fierce German attacks repulsed by Allies.
Turkish advance in Asia Minor suspended.
Boer success on Orange River. Germans driven back.
Canada's splendid loyalty.

January 16. Fighting on the Aisne.
General Von Kluck's big movement.
Partial German success.
British success at La Bassee.
British airmen bombard Antwerp.
Germans repulsed on Vistula.
Internal troubles in Vienna.
Defeat of Turkish rearguard at Karaurgan.
Turkish aggression in Persia.
Boer revolt; success of Union Forces.
Occupation of Swakopmund.

January 17. Fighting at Soissons.
German Cavalry repulsed on Lower Vistula.
Fighting at Karaurgan, more Russian successes.

January 18. Fighting in Belgium and France.
Important French advance.
Germans abandon La Bassee.
Calm on Russian front.
Turkish aggression in Persia.
Two Persian Governors shot.
Anglo-American relations, trade with Germany.

January 19. Continued progress of the Allies.
Russian advance on Thorn.
Kirlibaba Pass, in Carpathians, seized.
General discontent in Austria.
Battle of Karaurgan; complete Russian victory.
Turkish aggression in Persia.
Governor of Tabriz wounded.
Mines in the Baltic, five German steamers sunk.
Resignation of the Secretary of German Treasury.

January 20. The battle of Soissons
Dash for Paris.
General Joffre's sound strategy.
Gallantry of Indian troops at La Bassee.
The Russian campaign; fruitless German attacks.
Austrian bombardment of Tarnov checked.

January 21. Air raid on England, airships near Sandringham; bombs at Hunstanton and King's Lynn.
Calm on Russian frontier.
Calm at Soissons.
Intermittent fighting elsewhere.

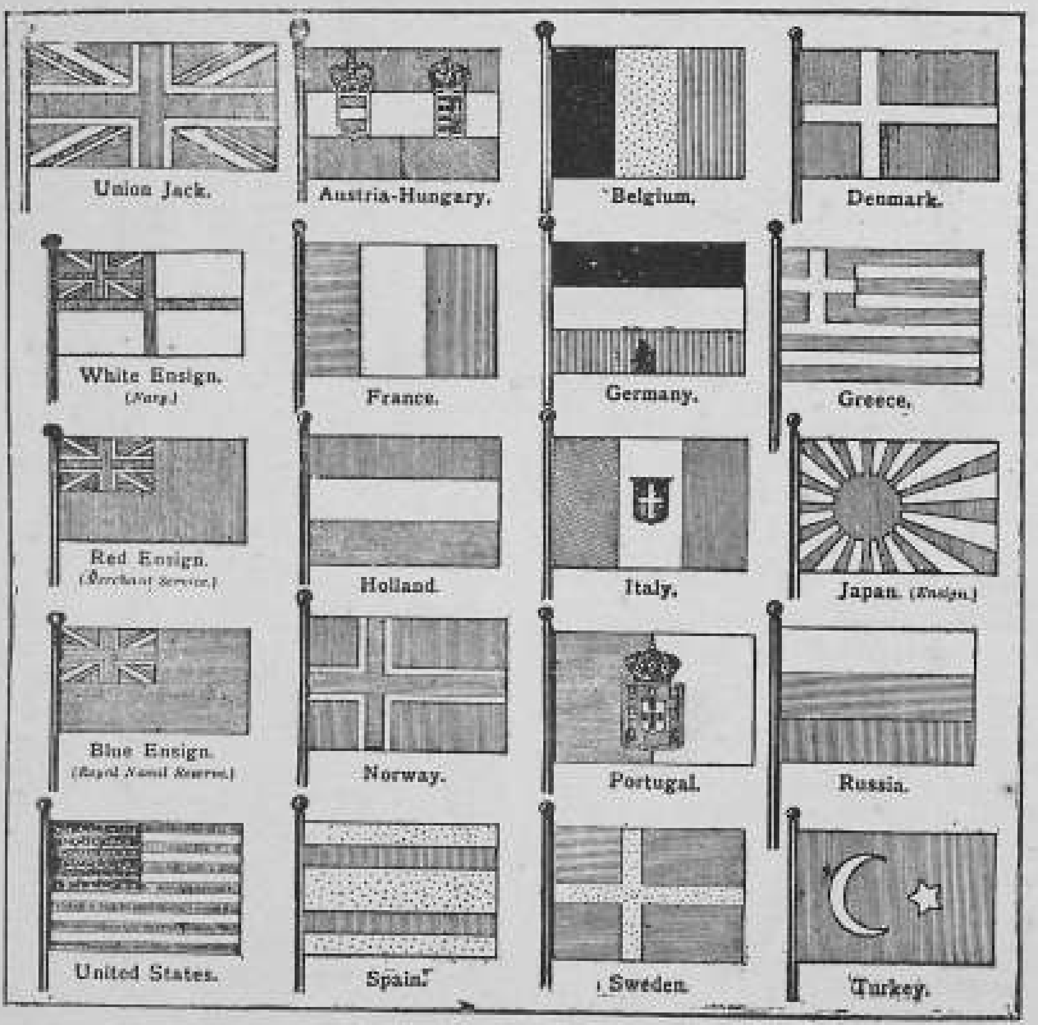
January 22. Air raid on England; damage at Yarmouth.
Allies' slow advance.
French explanation.
German tactics on the Aisne.
More Russian successes against the Germans.
Complete rout of Turks.
Russian pursuit in Trans Choruk country.

January 23. British air raid on Ostend, Zeebrugge and Essen.
German bombardment of Nieuport.
Fierce Infantry battle at Wailerkopf.
Turco-Russian hostilities, retreat of Turks in Caucasus.
French submarine sunk in the Dardanelles.

January 24. British heroism at St. Omer.
German assaults repulsed.
Russian advance into Hungary and Transylvania.
Further Russian successes in Caucasus.

GENERAL VON. HINDENBURG,

PRINCE HENRY OF PRUSSIA.



NATIONAL FLAGS.

January 25. Naval raid in North Sea.
German cruiser *Blucher* sunk.
Two German battle cruisers badly damaged.
Successful Artillery duels.
Germans checked at Argonne.
Aerial battle over Dunkirk.
Fighting on the Lower Vistula.
German offensive checked.
M. Millerand's visit to London.
Dutch mobilisation, entire military forces called out.

January 26. Fighting near Zelichekn.
An attack on Arras and fierce fighting in Alsace.
German and Austrian advances on the Vistula and Galicia respectively repulsed with heavy loss.
Turkish defeats in Choressn.
Turkish territory occupied.
Dutch neutrality violated by German aircraft
Netherland Government protests.
Boer revolt. Rebel attack on Upington repulsed.

January 27. British air raid on Essen, motor sheds destroyed.
Austrian activity in Carpathians.
Germans on the Vistula; occupation of Dobrizyn.

January 28. The North Sea battle; further details.
German cruiser torpedoed in the Baltic.
Progress of Belgians on the Yser front.
German reverse at La Bassee.
Fighting on the Vistula; heavy German losses.
Turkish designs on Egypt.
Raid on the Suez Canal.
Fighting at El Kantara.
Zeppelin attack on Libau.
Italy and Roumania; territorial concessions refused by Austria.
Germany's wheat and flour supply; all stocks to be seized by Government.
Turkish aerial fleet sunk by Russians near Sinope.

January 29. Battle of La Bassee; utter failure of German attack.
Germans repulsed on the Vistula and in Galicia.
Djavid Pasha appointed Generalissimo.
British loan of £5 millions to Roumania.
Persian Gulf Expedition. Heavy Turkish losses at Kurna and Mazera. Turkish force near Mazera.

January 30. German air raid on Dunkirk frustrated.
Steady progress of the Allies.
Important Russian victory in the Carpathians.
Russian progress in East Prussia.
Enver Pasha at Erzerum, re-officers Ninth Army.
Economic position of belligerents.
Austrian Foreign Minister's visit to Berlin.
Austrian and German troops massing in the Carpathians.

January 31. Battle of the Aisne.
German attempt to cross repulsed.
Russian progress in Galicia.
Important Russian developments in East Prussia.
Austrian grain monopoly.

February 1. German attack on Cuinchy repulsed by British.
Daring feat of French aviator, M. Pegoud.
Heavy German losses at Lombartzyde and La Bassee.
Fierce fighting in Argonne.
Turkish advance on the Suez Canal.
German submarine in Irish Sea torpedoes British merchant vessels.

February 2. German submarine raid.
Allies' successes along the Aisne front.
Russian strong position in the Carpathians and on the Vistula.
Outflanking movement in Mazurian Lake region.
Russian naval raids on Trebizond; barracks and stores destroyed.
Russian occupation of Tabriz.
Kaiser's return to Berlin.

February 3. German surprise at Albert repulsed.
German activity in Argonne.
Impetuous German attacks at Bolimoff repulsed by the Russians.
The Nyasaland rising. Capture of ringleaders.

February 4. Progress of Allies.
Desperate German attacks repulsed.
The North Sea Battle *Seydlitz* badly damaged.
Opening of British Parliament, food prices enquiry.
St. Croix Bridge in Maine U.S. blown up by German officer.

February 5. Russian successes in Prussia and the Carpathians.
Pressure on the Austrians.
Attacks on the Suez Canal.
Retreat of the Turks near Ismailia.

February 6. German threat to neutral ships.
Great indignation in U.S.A.
Air raid on Paris frustrated.
Notable Russian successes.
Meeting of Allied Finance Ministers.
Fierce fighting before Warsaw.
Turkish repulse on the Suez.

February 7. Fierce fighting on the Vistula and Bzura.
Critical situation in Przemysl.
German naval losses.
Entente financial arrangement.
The Pope's efforts for peace.

February 8. Sinking of a British merchantman.
German bombardment of Ypres and other towns.
Fighting on the Vistula.
Russian offensive on the Carpathians.

February 9. German Blockade order creating a sensation in neutral countries.
Strong American and Dutch Press views.
Naval activity in the Black Sea.
Speech by Russian Premier.
Bayonet fighting in the rear.

February 10. Views of international jurists on German blockade.
Fifty Turkish ships sunk.
Serious situation in Poland.

February 11. The German blockade, strong protests by neutral countries.
Russian success in East Prussia and the Carpathians.
Breslau bombards Yalta.
Russians retaliate on Trebizond.
Stormy scenes in the Prussian Diet.
The Boer revolt; Maritz executed by the Germans for treachery.

February 12. The German Blockade, views of international jurists.
Severe fighting at Maria Theresa.
Deplorable conditions in Hungary.

Russian bombardment of Trebizond, fifty sailing vessels sunk.
Russian Duma, cordial greetings to the Allies.

February 13. Great British air raid on North Sea-ports.
Violent fighting near Bagattelle.
Russian retirement in East Prussia.
Germany's fresh efforts.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles.
Turkish advance on the Suez Canal abandoned,

February 14. German activity in Argonne.
A British success near La-Bassee.
Turkish transport sunk in the Black Sea.
British Mounted patrol burn two towns in German S. W. Africa.

February 15. German blockade; use of neutral flag.
American Note to Great Britain,
Artillery duels in Belgium; bombardment of neutral ports, Ypres and Rheims,
President Poincare visits troops in Alsace.
German advances in East Prussia.
Strong reinforcements arriving.

February 16. Mr. Winston Churchill on the Navy.
Allies' finance agreements, a statement by Mr. Lloyd George,
Stubborn fighting at Bagattelle.
Battle raging on the Vistula.
Austrian air raid in Montenegro.
Fighting near Sinai; Turkish detachment annihilated.

February 17. Bombardment of Antivari.
Progress on the western front.
Franco-British air raid.
Russian advance in Carpathians.

February 18. Sir John French's Despatch.
Stubborn fighting near Augustove.
Situation in Carpathians unchanged.
German blockade; sinking of the *Dulwich*.
Germany's insufficient food-supply.

February 19. The German Blockade.
Sir E. Grey's Note to America.
German Note to America.
Albanian incursion in Serbia.

February 20. More German airships wrecked.
War demonstration in Rome.
German advance in East Prussia; Russian retreat.
Austrian activity against Serbia, bombardment of Belgrade.
Trial of De Wet.

February 21. German Blockade.
Germany's allegations against neutrals.
Netherlands' Note to Germany, and Great Britain's misuse of neutral flags.

February 22. German naval raids in the Atlantic.
Submarine raid in Irish Sea.

February 23. German Blockade, American ships not to be attacked.
German air raid in Essex.
War demonstrations in Italy; trouble in Trieste.

February 24. Bombardment of the Dardanelles begun.

February 25. German submarine attacked near Boulogne. *Branksome Chase* damaged and three steamers sunk near Beachy Head.

February 26. Russian advance on East Prussia; Germans steadily driven back.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles, entrance forts reduced.
Two American steamers and one British steamer sunk.

February 27. Search for German submarines.

February 28. German blockade, American compromise proposals.
Bombardment of Oso-Wiecs by heavy German siege guns; Germans retreat across the Niemen.
Bombardment of the Dradanelles, more forts reduced.

March 1. Mr. Asquith's great speech in the Commons.
The Russian advance.
British retaliatory measures.
Another American Note.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles.
Disaster to a German submarine.

March 2. Russian progress.
The victory at Prasnysz.
Defeat of two German Army Corps.
Panic in Constantinople.
Mr. Asquith's tribute to Indian and Colonial troops.
Mr. Lloyd George on the war and the workers.

March 3. Reports of the British Admirals.
Turkish Military base captured.
An outrage at Jeddah.
Italian protest to Turkey.
King George and the Navy.
British steamer escapes from aeroplanes.

March 4. Fighting round Ypres.
Success of British and French troops.
Russian victory in the north.
Silencing of Dardanelles forts.
German blockade and British retaliation.

March 5. Steady progress of the Allies.
French progress in the Vosges.
Russian advance in Mlawa region.
Fighting on the Vistula front.
Austrian attacks repulsed.

March 6. Forcing the Dardanelles
Effective work of allied warships.
French details of barbarous German warfare.
Bombardment of Smyrna.

March 7. Enquiry into Boer rebellion.
A German Prize-ship in the Madras Harbour.
Fighting in the Persian Gulf.
Turks and Arabs defeated.

March 8. Further progress of the Allies.
German artillery damaged.
Damage of a Zeppelin.
Fighting in Poland.

March 9. Air raid on Ostend.
Activity of the Russian Black Sea Fleet.
Cabinet crisis in Greece.
Pro-war Demonstrations in Athens.

March 10. German offensive in Poland.
Fresh efforts towards Warsaw.
Mr. Lloyd George's appeal to the nation.
German intrigues in the Far East.
Refusal of further German help to Turkey.

March 11. Work of British shipers.
Russian activity in the Carpathians.
Dismay in Berlin and Vienna.
British steamers torpedoed.
A German submarine destroyed.
Italy and the war.

March 12. Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
Success of the British forces.
Engagement of the Indian troops.
The battle of Champagne.
Heroic French deeds.

March 13. The Germans in Poland.
Another determined onslaught.
German cruisers' depradations.
Sinking of an American steamer.
Resentment in America.

March 14. French advance in Champagne.
Progress of the Belgians.
Russian successes in Poland.
Turkish defeat in the Caucasus.
A plot in Constantinople.

March 15. Fighting in Argonne.
French successes.
Continued progress of the Belgians.
Successful British attack.
The German blockade.
British reprisals.

March 16. Fighting south of Ypres.
British regain lost ground.
French success in Arras and Champagne.
Progress of the Russians.
German counter attacks repulsed.
Geman Cruiser *Dresden* sunk by a British Squadron off Chili.
Lord Kitchener's review.
Eulogy of Indians, Canadians, and the French.

March 17. British success near Ypres.
French advance in Arras and Champagne.
Sinking of the *Dresden* by British Squadron off Chili.
Lord Kitchener's review.

March 18. Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
Progress of the Belgians.
Russian successes in Poland.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles.
German blockade; same British reprisals; Sir Edward Grey's reply to America.

March 19. French and Belgian progress.
Zeppelin raid on Calais.
Fighting on the Yser.
Co-operation of British warships.
Russian activity on East-Prussian frontier.
The siege of Przemysl; Russians closing in.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles.
End of the *Karlsruhe*.

March 20. French success in Champagne.
Seizure of a Swedish steamer.
Exploit of the "Thordis; Captain honoured.
Loss of the German cruiser, *Strassburg*.

March 21. Miles of German trenches captured.
Invasion of East Prussia; Russian raid on Memel.
Forcing the Dardanelles; entrance forts silenced.
Russian Fleet off the Bosphorus.
German air raid on Deal, bombs dropped into the sea.

March 22. Battle of St. Eloi, a graphic report.
Austrian losses at Przemysl.
Forcing the Dardanelles, destruction of forts.
Italian Note to Austria.
German seizure of Dutch steamers.
British successes in German S. W. Africa.
Wild scenes in the Reichstag.

March 23. Fall of Przemysl.
Russian advance in Bukowina.
French progress in Champagne.
Russian advance on Black Sea coast.

March 24. Zeppelin raid on Paris.
Bombardment of Rheims, bombs dropped on the city.
Fall of Przemysl, Russian leaders honoured by the Czar.
Russian successes in the Carpathians.
Military activity in Italy.
Interned German liner at San Juan, attempts to escape.

March 25. Franco-Belgian successes.
British air attack on Hoboken.
Rout of the Turks near Suez.
Dardanelles operations hampered by a storm.

March 26. French Infantry's exploit at Notre Dame de Lorette.
German Council of War at Lille, the Kaiser present.
A great Russian victory in the Carpathians.
Furious fighting in Poland.
Defeat of the Turks in the Caucasus.
Sinking of German submarine *U 29*.

March 27. Fighting at Notre Dame de Lorette.
Fine condition of French army.
King George's visit to Harwich.

March 28. Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
German submarine rammed.
Three German ships sunk in the Baltic.
Italy's popular vote for intervention.

March 29. Forcing the Dardanelles.
Conference of Admirals.
Russian Navy reinforced in the Baltic.
Kurdish atrocities.

March 30. A British Mail Steamer sunk.
German women's anti-war movement.
Greece and Bulgarian neutrality.
British labour and the war.
M. Venzelos' remarkable speech.

March 31. Fighting in Alsace.
Great uneasiness in Constantinople.
Russian advance in the Carpathians.
Forcing the Dardanelles.

April 1. Desperate indecisive fighting in Argonne.
Bombardment of Zeebrugge by allied aeroplanes.
Bombardment of Libau by German warships.
Russian Fleet's move on the Bosphorus.
Russian successes in the Caucasus.
German submarine rammed by a French warship.
City of Cambridge bombarded by a German submarine.
Capture of German camp in South-West Africa.

April 2. French successes on Western front.
Sinking of the *Crown of Castile*.
German retreat at Krasnopole.
Russian successes in the Carpathians.
Russian Fleet bombards fort in the Bosphorus.

April 3. Fighting on the Yser.
Activity of allied armies at Hoboken and Zeebrugge.
Russian victory on the Niemen and in the Carpathians.
Sinking of the "Seven Seas, "Emma," "South Point," and three trawlers.
Norwegian barque torpedoed in the North Sea.

April 4. Bombardment of Zeebrugge by British warships.
The "Lockwood torpedoed.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles; a German officer's description.

April 5. Fighting in Alsace, capture of Hartmannsweilerkopf.
French official description.
General Joffre visits Belgian headquarters; received by King Albert.
Russians capture the Carpathians.
Austrian retreat.
Attack on Bosphorus Forts by Russian Fleet.
Turkish cruiser "Medjidieh" sunk.
Drink question in England.
Archbishop of Canterbury's appeal.

April 6. British air-raid on Hoboken; much damage done.
Russian progress in Poland and the Carpathians; desperate Austrian situation.
Pursuit of the "Goeben" and "Breslau" by Russian warships.
German blockade, three steamers sunk.
Drink question in England; King George's example.

April 7. Another great French effort at Eparges and St. Mihiel.
Big battle in the Carpathians.
Desperate Austrian retreat.
Field Marshal Goltz's return to Constantinople.
American Note on British reprisals.
Fighting in German S. W. Africa.
Union Forces capture Warmbad.

April 8. Belgian success on the Yser, German troops repulsed.
Germans in Antwerp prepare to flood the country.
Fighting in German S. W. Africa; occupation of Kalkfontein and Kamus.

April 9. Substantial French progress, gains everywhere consolidated.
Russian offensive in Carpathians constantly reinforced.
Austrian demands for German help.
The position in Turkey; shortage of supplies; all available men called up.

April 10. Important French gains at Eparges, between the Meuse and Moselle.
Russian successes in the Carpathians, preparatory to invading Hungary.
Portuguese ship *Douro* torpedoed.

April 11. Brilliant French success at Eparges.
Russian progress in the Carpathians.
Austrian peace overtures.
Germany's consent reported to have been given.
Forcing the Dardanelles.
The French Expeditionary Force quartered at Ramleh.
The German Blockade; exciting experience of the *Theseus*; tug captain's bravery.
Treatment of British prisoners; appalling revelations.
Italy and Serbia's agreement regarding the Adriatic.

April 12. "Eye-witness' remarkable report.
American and German peace talk.
Alleged appeal by the Pope.
Germany and the Netherlands.

April 13. German failure at Beau Sejour.
Fighting in the Carpathians.
Sir John French on munitions.
American indignation.
German submarine commander's piracy.

April 14. Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
Sir John French's Despatch.
The Kaiser in command.
America's sharp reply to Germany.

April 15. Fighting on the Yser.
More fighting in Mesopotamia.
Defeat of the Turks.
Austria and Italy.

April 16. Capture of Les Eparges.
Hungarian town evacuated.
Air raid in England.
Great indignation in Holland.

April 17. Brilliant French success at Arras.
Air raids on Mezieres, Charleville, and Ostend.
British steamer *Ptarmigan* torpedoed.
Attack on Dutch vessels.
Air raid on England in Northumberland, Suffolk, Essex, and Kent.

April 18. Activity of French aviators.
Two heights captured by Russians in the Carpathians.
Activity of Russian Fleet in the Black Sea.
Precipitate retreat of Turks from Shaiba.

April 19. French progress in the Vosges and Alsace;
Air ship raid on Strasburg.
Czar leaves for the front.
Bombardment of Dardanelles resumed.
Turkish destroyer chased and run ashore near Chios.
Greek steamer *Ellispontis* torpedoed.

April 20. British aviator's successful attack on railway at Haltingen.
Russian success in the Carpathians.
Austrians' stubborn defence.
Scouting on the Dardanelles, submarine *E15* aground.

April 21. French successes in Alsace.
German activity in Poland. Numerous air raids.
Trawler *Vanilla* sunk in the North Sea.
Dutch steamer *Claudia* sunk by a mine.
Capture of Kietmanshoop.

April 22. British capture Hill 60 near Ypres.
Air raid on Mulheim and Habsheim.
Russian advance in the Carpathians maintained.

April 23. French success in Argonne and Alsace.
Aerial battle along the Rhine.

April 24. Important French success at Bois d'Ailly.
Czar's enthusiastic reception in Galicia.
The Mediterranean Expedition, Sir Ian Hamilton to command.
Norwegian steamer *Brilliant* captured by Germans, trawler *St. Lawrence* torpedoed, rescued fired on.

April 25. German attack on the Yser; use of asphyxiating gas; Canadians' good work.
Swedish steamer *Ruth* torpedoed in the North Sea.

April 26. Fighting round Ypres; capture of Hill 60.
French success in Argonne and on the Meuse.
Forcing the Dardanelles.
Two Norwegian ships sunk by submarines.

April 27. Anti-war demonstrations in Trieste.

April 28. Fighting round Ypres, loss of St. Julien.
Belgian success at Dixmude.
German activity in Alsace, German naval activity in Courland.
Russian Naval Squadron shells Bosphorus forts.

April 29. Forcing the Dardanelles. Further allied opperations on both sides of Dardanelles.
Conference of Indian Ambassadors.
German maltreatment of British prisoners.

April 30. Battle round Arras.
Severe fighting on the Niemen.
French cruiser *Leon Gambetta* torpedoed by Austrian submarine in the Adriatic.

May 1. Battle of Ypres; furious fighting on the Yser Canal; French progress in Lorraine.
Allied aviators active; Mauser rifle factory at Anendorf bombed.
Fierce fighting in Carpathians and on the Niemen.
The landing in Dardanelles.
Bombardment of Smyrna.
Air raid on England, Ipswich and Bury; St. Edmunds bombed.

May 2. Bombardment of Dunkirk by Germans.
Important German offensive in North-West Poland.
Mr. Lloyd George in the House of Commons.
German blockade, colliers and a trawler sunk.
American steamer *Cushing* attacked by German aviator.

May 3. Bombardment of Metz.
Russian advance on the Niemen.
German investment of Libau.
Bikanir Camel Corps in Suez.
Edale and *Gulflight* torpedoed. French steamer *Europe* sunk.
Small naval engagement in the North Sea.
The British destroyer *Recruit* submarined.
Two German torpedo boats sunk by British destroyers.

May 4. Allies' splendid air work.
German attacks on Hill 60.

May 5. German attacks at Ypres and Bois le Pretre.
Heavy fighting on Russian front in the Carpathians on the Lower Nida and the Vistula; Mount Makavka captured.
Russian bombardment of the Bosphorus.
Two Norwegian steamers sunk.

May 6. French successes at Beau Sejour, Bagatelle and Bois le Pretre; desperate fighting on Vistula and Carpathians; advance of the Allies in the Dardanelles.
Turks defeated in Caucasus.
Raid on British trawlers by submarines.

May 7. Fighting in France and Belgium.
German raid on North-West Russia and big move in Galicia.

May 8. The Cunard liner *Lusitania* sunk by German submarines, heavy loss of life.
Great German losses in Galicia.
Rupture of Austro-Italian relations imminent.
General Botha's success.

May 9. Great battle in Galicia.
Forcing the Dardanelles; French diversion, bombardment of Fort Nagara.

May 10. Fierce fighting round Ypres, successful British offensive.
French successes at Lens and Bagatelle. German occupation of Libau.
Turkish transports sunk outside the Bosphorus.
British destroyer *Maori* sunk by mine.

May 11. Five German attacks repulsed.
French success at St. George's.
Forcing the Dardanelles; occupation of Kilid Bahr.
Air raid on England, bombs dropped at Westcliff.

May 12. German dash for Calais repulsed with loss.
Desperate fighting in Galicia.
Forts in the Narrow bombarded.

May 13. Anti-German riots in London.
Fierce fighting in Belgium, investment of Carency.
French success at Loos.
Combined Anglo-French successes.
Anglo-French successes on Gallipoli peninsula.

May 14. French success at Notre Dame de Lorette; capture of Neuville.
Fierce fighting in Galicia, Russian offensive continues.
Goliath sunk in Dardanelles by torpedo.
Two Turkish gunboats and transport sunk.
Russian bombardment of Bosphorus forts.

May 15. Belgian success on Yser; French activity north of Arras.
Russian success in West Galicia, disastrous Austrian retreat.
Anti-German riots in England and South Africa.
Reported sinking of a German submarine.
Retreat of Germans in South-West Africa to Grootfontein.

May 16. French progress north of Arras, capture of Carency.
Pro-war demonstrations in Italy.

May 17. British success near Festubert.
French success in Arras and Champagne.
Forcing the Dardanelles.
Zeppelin raid on Ramsgate.

May 18. Continued advance of the French.
Zeppelin chased by British aeroplanes and damaged.

May 19. Zeppelin air-raid on Calais.
Austrians routed in Bukhovina.
French success in the Cameroons.

May 20. British advance on Lille.
Bombardment of Przemysl.
Russians set fire to Boroslav oil-fields.

May 21. Terrific fighting in Galicia.
The *Drumcree*, *Dumfries* and two trawlers sunk.
British Cabinet crisis; resignation of Lord Fisher.

May 22. French success at Ypres and British progress north of La Bassee.
Operations in Gallipoli.
Good work by Gurkhas and Territorials.

May 23. French and British successes.
Wholesale use of gas by Germans.
Russian activity in the Black Sea, landing at Eregli.
Three towns in the Caucasus occupied.
Holland proclaims a state of siege.

May 24. Italy declares war on Austria.
Heavy German losses in Galicia.

May 25. Battle round Ypres.
British regain lost ground.
Severe fighting in Galicia.
Italian invasion of Austria.

May 26. Attack on the British near Ypres.
Austro-German offensive in Galicia.
Italian advance.
An American steamer torpedoed.

May 27. German air-raids.
Masterly Russian retreat.
H. M. S. *Triumph* and *Majestic* sunk.

May 28. Significant German admissions.
Italy's capture of strategic points.
Russian opinion of Italian intervention.

May 29. French successes.
Capture of Ablain.
Great battle in Galicia.
Attack on Przemysl.

May 30. Enormous Austro-German losses.
Further Italian advance.
Reply to American Note.
Austrian dockyard shelled.

May 31. Repulse of German attack.
Battle on the Sand river.
The enemy's retreat.
The arsenal at Pola ablaze.

June 1. Zeppelins drop bombs near London.
Italians bombard Pola.
Germany's unsatisfactory reply to America.

June 2. The air-raid on London.
Italians advance on the Tyrol front.

June 3. Przemysl forts entered by the enemy.
The capture of Ablain, General Pritwitz, German Commander of Libau, made prisoner.

June 4. Przemysl fort attacked.
British submarine sinks transports in the Marmora.
French air-raid on German headquarters.
Italians penetrate Austrian frontier.

June 5. Russian successes at Libau.
Battle on the Isonzo River.
Turks defeated at Van.

June 6. The evacuation of Przemysl.
Italian offensive on the Isonzo.
British success in Cameroons.
Mr. Asquith's visit to France.
Operations in Mesopotamia: surrender of Amara.
Conviction of two alien spies in England.
Bombs dropped in various coast-towns in England.

June 7. Shots exchanged in the Baltic.
Germany apologises for torpedoing the *Gulflight.*
M. Masson, Deputy for Mons, shot.
Italians bombard Austrian islands.
French gaining ground north of Arras.

June 8. Three German warships sunk.
British airmen destroy airship shed near Brussels.
Minelayer *Casablanca* destroyed.
Zeppelin raid on the East Coast of England.
Battle of Arras favourable to French troops.

June 9. Flight Sub. Lieutenant Warneford decorated with V.C. for destroying a Zeppelin.
Italians cross the river Isonzo.

June 10. German submarine sunk.
British seaplanes drop bombs on Akbasch.
Italians occupy the town of Monfalcone.
German Fleet driven back in the Baltic Sea.
Italian airship destroyed.

June 11. French capture of Neuville.
Italian attcks; retirement of the Austrians.
Two British torpedo boats sunk.

June 12. Battle in Galicia.
Severe fighting in the Shavli region.
Fighting on the Carnic frontier.
Poisonous gases for Austria destroyed at Monfalcone.
Austrian topedo boat sunk by an Italian submarine.
Second American Note to Germany.

June 13. Russian successes from Baltic to Bukhovina.
Strike of German miners in Silesia.
Cholera in Austria.
Progress of Italians beyond Montenero.
Defence of Constantinople.

June 14. Rapid Italian offensive.
Austrians defeated in the mountains.
Russo-Turkish hostilities.
Warning to Americans.

June 15. Fighting at Dixmude.
French advance in Lorraine.
Operations in Galicia.
Austro-Italian hostilities.

June 16. Germans repulsed at Arras and Hebuterne.
Belgians surprised by gas at Dixmude.
Germans checked at Shavli.
Austrians repulsed at Monfalcone.
Operations in Nigeria; surrender of Garua to an Anglo-French force.

June 17. Franco-British successes at Quenneviere and La Bassee.
Air raid on Karlsruhe.
Zeppelin raid on North-East Coast of England.
Italians pressing on Trieste.
Breslau damaged in the Black Sea.

June 18. German reverse at Ypres.
British capture trenches.
Rheims again bombarded.
German progress west of Lemberg.
Fighting on the San and Dniester.
The defence of Trieste; successful Italian air raid.
Attack on British trenches in the Dardanelles repulsed with great loss.

June 19. Anglo-French successes north of Arras and at Hooge.
Sub-Lieutenant Warneford accidentally killed in Paris.
Stubborn Russian defence in Galicia.
Germans mining the White Sea.
Italian submarine sunk by an Austrian submarine.

June 20. French advance in Alsace.
Belgian success on the Yser.
British success northward of Ypres.
German progress in Galicia.
Italian occupation of Montenero; good work by Alpini and Bersaglieri.
Forcing the Dardanelles, British submarine's exploit.

June 21. Germans defeated at Loretto.
French successes along the whole front.
Fighting in Galicia, the struggle for Lemberg.
Italians cross the Isonzo.

June 22. Struggle in Galicia, great Austro-German turning movement.

June 23. Russian withdrawal from Grodek lakes.
German troops for Tyrol.
Escape of Anchor Liner *Cameronia* from German submarine.
Boer revolt, De Wet found guilty.

June 24. Bombardment of Dunkirk.
Belgain success at St. Georges.
Germans repulsed at Arras.
Fall of Lemberg.
Italians bombard Gorza.
The Persian Gulf Expedition; Sir Arthur Barett's Despatches.

June 25. British success at Hooge.
Italian successes along whole front.
Allied submarines in the Sea of Marmora.

June 26. French successes in Lorraine.
Austrians beaten on the Dniester.
Seven Italian trawlers torpedoed.

June 27. Italian progress in Tyrol and the Trentino.
Reprisals for bombarding defenceless towns.
Ships and cargoes confiscated.

June 28. French successes in Alsace, at Metzeral and on the Fecht.
Further Russian retirement in Galicia.

June 29. French air-raid on Friederichshaven.
The Russians retreat, the Grand Duke Nichola's strategy.
Italy and Austria, more trench warfare.
Fighting on the Victoria Nyanza.

June 30. Fighting for the Agres-Ablain road.
Activity of Allied aviators near Roulers.
Stubborn battle at Ozarow.
The Munitions Bill debate in Parliament.
Exchanged British prisoners' arrival in England.

July 1. The Victoria Cross, more awards.
The Austro-German advance, fierce rear-guard actions by the Russians.
Italian advance on Gorz.
Forcing the Dardanelles; activity of British gunboat *Hussar*.
British War Loan; a Meeting at the Guildhall.

July 2. French successes in Arras and Argonne.
Bombardment of Windau.
German and Russian naval squadrons engaged.
Italy and Turkey; Ambassadors recalled.
The German blockade, Armenian and other vessels torpedoed.

July 3. Violent fighting in Argonne.
German bombardment at Ypres and Souchez.
Italian advance.
Operations in Gallipoli; Sir Ian Hamilton's Report.
The German blockade; more vessels sunk.
Alien enemies in India, a statement by Mr. Austen Chamberlain.
The Munitions Bill, debate in the House of Lords.

July 4. Desperate German bombardment.
Naval engagement in the Baltic, Russian success.
The Austro-German advance; spirited Russian resistance.
Austro-Italian hostilities; heavy fighting on the Isonzo.
Russian submarine in the Black Sea sinks two steamers and a ship with supplies.

July 5. Fierce fighting in Argonne.
Naval action in Baltic, German battleship blown up.
German offensive repulsed in Poland and Austro-German advance in Galicia checked.

July 6. Battle of Arras.
Naval action in the Baltic, fuller particulars.
Austro-Italian hostilities; good work by Italian heavy guns.
Capture of German munitions from interned steamer *Bayern* at Naples.

July 7. Battle of Arras.
Fighting in Argonne, Germans completely repulsed.
Brilliant Russian air-raids at Przevorsk.
Fighting round Lublin, German attacks repulsed.
Italian bombardment of Malborghetto; air-raid on Trieste.
French liner *Carthage* sunk in the Dardanelles.
German submarine sunk in the English Channel by French destroyer.

July 8. Sir John French's report.
German attack on Souchez station repulsed; new German offensive in the forest of Apremont.
Desperate fighting near Krasnyk, Austro-German offensive stopped.
Italian advance on Isonzo; the fight for Tarvis and Carso.
Capture of Zellenkofel.

July 9. More fighting in the Baltic off Gothland.
Russian offensive at Krasnyk.
Successful Russian counter-attack at Lublin.

July 10. French success in the Vosges.
Russian successes in Poland.
Naval action in the Baltic.
Exploit of a British submarine.
Heavy fighting on the Isonzo.
Italians capture Podogra.
Austrian evacuation of Tolmino.
Turkish attack at Gallipoli repulsed.
Germans in South-West Africa surrender to General Botha.

July 11. Fighting north of Arras, successful Anglo-French co-operation.
Anglo-French Allies in Conference, Ministers meet at Calais.
Mr. Asquith and Lord Kitchener visit the Front.
Russian offensive extending south of Lublin.
Italian successes. Submarine warfare, Germany's reply to America.
Surrender of German S. W. Africa, General Botha's Report, world-wide congratulations.

July 12. British Grand Fleet; King's visit and message.
German attacks repulsed by French and British.
French aviators active at Agneville and Bayoneville.
Russian offensive in Galicia progressing.

July 13. Fierce fighting in Arras.
German attack on Souchez, General Mackensen's objective, a blow at Kieff.
Austrian surprise attack repulsed at Montenero.

July 14. German attack on the "Labyrinth" repulsed with heavy loss.
Allied air-raid, German strategic Railway bombed.
German submarine supply ship captured by Italian officer.
Destruction of the *Koenigsberg* in German East Africa.

July 15. French successes in Argonne, Arras and Soissons.
Crown Prince's Army defeated.

July 16. French advance in Argonne, activity of French aviators, visits to Essen.
German offensive near Warsaw, stubborn Russian defence.
British National Register Bill becomes Law.

July 17. Fierce battle in Lorraine, Germans repulsed.
German offensive in the Baltic Provinces.
Austrians cross the Dniester, Austrian forts demolished by Italians in Upper Cadore.
Serbian operations, British troops co-operating.
Heavy fighting in Gallipoli.
German scare at Constantinople, German blockade.
Norwegian steamer torpedoed.

July 18. German advance on Warsaw, strenuous Russian defence.
Austrian attacks repulsed by Italians in the Brizio Passes and in Carina.

July 19. German attack on the Meuse heights repulsed.
Fierce fighting on the Oujiza; heavy German losses.
Italian progress on the Cadore front.
Peace movement in Turkey.
Death of the Sultan of Lahej.
New York liner *Orduna*, shelled by a submarine.

July 20. German attacks at Souchez and in Argonne repulsed.
Fierce fighting in Poland, conflicting reports.
Operations in Gallipoli, Sir Ian Hamilton's despatch.

July 21. German attacks on Soissons easily repulsed.
Austro-German offensive in the East.
Russians take up new positions.
Great Cavalry battle in Baltic Provinces.
Cruiser *Guiseppe Garibaldi* torpedoed.
Italian aerial activity.
Italian success on the Carso plateau.
British submarine off Constantinople, sinks four vessels.

July 22. Further bombardment of Rheims.
French success in the Fecht Valley (Alsace).
Successful air-raids on Colmar Railway Station.
Struggle for Warsaw raging furiously.
Italian success on Isonzo front.

July 23. British success at Ypres.
Terrific battle for Warsaw, Russians fighting furiously.
German dash into Baltic Provinces at Windau.
Fierce fighting on the Carso plateau.
Sanguinary battle at Gorizia.
Heavy Austrian losses in Isonzo region.
Turks defeated near Aden.

July 24. Severe fighting at Little Reichackerskop, German attacks repulsed; activity of French aviators.
Fighting in Vosges, Linge summit captured by French.
Russian retirement, villages, farms and forest burned.
Italian offensive developing.
Heavy Austrian losses.

July 25. French success at Boisle Pretre.
Russian stubborn defence in attack near Warsaw.
Italian successes at Gorizia and on the Carso plateau.
Good work by Italian Alpinists at Montenero.
Gorz and Tolmein practically surrounded.
The American Note to Germany on submarine warfare.

July 26. The battle for Warsaw.
Developments in the Baltic.
Italian victory at Carso.
Austrian supply depot destroyed.
Turkish defeat in Gallipoli.

July 27. The American vessel *Leelanaw* and the British Steamer "Grangewood" sunk in the North Sea.
Resolute Russian resistance at Warsaw.
Sharp fight on the Isonzo.
Serbia's reawakening.

July 28. French Success on the Vosges.
Fighting on the Carso Plateau.
England's Note to America.
French progress in the Cameroons.

July 29. Turkish ports shelled.
Stirring speech by Asquith in the Commons.
Fighting on the Narew.
Russian capture of a Zeppelin.

July 30. Deputation representing Indian students to Lord Islington *re*: admission of Indians to the Officers' Training Corps.
German agitation in Austria.
Arrest of German spies in England.

July 31. Fighting on the Vistula.
Minor actions in the Tyrol, Trentino and on the Cadore and Carso plateaux.
Turkish coal steamer and 17 sailing ships destroyed.

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WHO IS WHO IN THE WAR?

ABRUZZI, DUKE OF.—The Duke of the Abruzzi, first cousin of the King of Italy, was appointed to the chief command of the Royal Italian Navy in August last. Born in Madrid on the 29th January, 1873, he was educated at the Naval School at Leghorn, and has had a successful career as an Officer of the Fleet. During the Tripolitain War he commanded a division of ships operating principally in the Adriatic.

AEHRENTHAL, COUNT.—The late Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister who died in 1912. He was one of the most striking personalities among modern statesmen. His acts and utterances were however marked by casuistry and unfairness.

AGA KHAN, H. H. THE.—The well-known Muslim Leader. For a sketch of his life and services to the cause of Britain, see p. 248c, portrait, p. 248c.

AKALKOT, THE RAJAH OF.—One of the Indian chiefs who have offered their services on the field. He has married a grand-daughter of the late Gaekwar of Baroda.

ALBANIA, KING OF—The Prince is connected by blood with the ruling houses of Germany, Russia and Holland. He is a man of enormous strength, determined and cool-headed. At the outbreak of the war, he joined with Germany.

ALBERT, KING OF BELGIUM.—For a detailed sketch of his life and character and portrait, see p. 157.

ALBERT, PRINCE.—The second son of the King. He has seen service on War Ships. For portrait, see p. 49.

ALEXANDRA, QUEEN.—In the early days of the War, Queen Alexandra issued an appeal to the nation on behalf of the British Red Cross Society, of which she is the President, and by September, was able to express "great satisfaction" that her appeal had yielded the splendid sum of £250,000.

ALLENBY, MAJOR-GENERAL EDMUND HENRY YUMAN.—Has been Inspector-General of Cavalry since 1910. He is now serving in France and has been specially mentioned in Sir John French's Despatches.

AMERY, LEOPOLD CHARLES MAURICE STENNET, M.P.—One of the many members of Parliament now serving with the Forces. He has been given Commission as Captain to serve on the Headquarter's Staff.

ANSON, REAR-ADMIRAL CHARLES EUSTACE.—As Admiral Superintendent of Chatham Dockyard, Admiral Anson has a highly responsible post.

AOSTA, DUKE OF.—One of the Italian commanders in the field.

ASHTON, LORD.—He gave a donation of £25,000 to the Prince of Wales's Fund. He is a well-known manufacturer.

ASQUITH, ARTHUR M.—A son of the English Prime Minister. He joined the Royal Naval Division as a sub-lieutenant. He was in the trenches under fire for several days.

ASQUITH, THE RIGHT HON. HERBERT HENRY.—Prime Minister of England. For a sketch of his life and character, see p. 32a, portrait, 32d.

ASTON, BRIGADIER-GENERAL SIR GEORGE G.—Appointed Brigade Commander of the Marine Brigade in the new Royal Naval Division formed for land service on the outbreak of War. He has been long connected with the Admiralty. He was Professor in the Royal Naval College.

AUFFENBERG, GENERAL VON.—In charge of one of the Austrian armies operating against the Russians in Galicia. He has not been very successful but yielded one position after another with great loss to his forces. For portrait, see p. 241.

AUGAGNEUR, VICTOR.—The French Minister of Marine. He is professionally a Surgeon. He is a Republican Socialist.

AUSTRIA, THE ARCH-DUKE CARL FRANZ JOSEPH OF.—Heir presumptive to the Thrones of Austria and Hungary and nephew of the murdered Archduke. On the death of his uncle, he was summoned by the aged Emperor to take an active part in the affairs of the State. He is said to be industrious and painstaking. For portrait, see p. 241.

AUSTRIA, ARCHDUKE FERDINAND JOSEPH OF.—Brother of the late Heir-presumptive. For portrait, see p. 25.

AVARNA, DUKE OF.—The Duke of Avarna, hitherto Italian Ambassador at Vienna is a Sicilian nobleman of old family. Since his appointment to the Vienna Embassy in 1904, he has worked conscientiously to improve Austro-Italian relations. Though a convinced adherent of the Triple Alliance, he was persuaded of the short-sightedness of Austrian treatment of Italian questions.

BADEN, GRAND DUKE OF.—Head of the ancient Zahrengeir dynasty and Grand Duke of Baden. Born in 1857. An attempt was once made on his life.

BAKER, HAROLD TREVER, M.P.—Financial Secretary to the English War Office.

BALFOUR.—His political record is too well known to need more than a passing reference. He has been a member of the House of Commons for over forty years, and was a Cabinet Minister twenty-eight years ago. He has been successively President of the Local Government Board, Secretary for Scotland, Chief Secretary for Ireland, First Lord of the Treasury, Lord Privy Seal, and Prime Minister. He first became Leader of the House of Commons in 1891, and his Premiership lasted from July, 1902, to December, 1904. He is now in the Admiralty in the coalition ministry.

BALLIN.—An astute merchant and bargainer, Herr Ballin is practically Commissariat-General of Germany in the war. In that capacity tremendous responsibility rests upon him during the "critical months," through which Germany is now passing, pending the reaping of her next harvest. The provisioning not only of the Kaiser's soldiers, and sailors but of the nation, is in Herr Ballin's hands. It is in good hands.—Mr. Frederic William Wile in the *Daily Mail*.

BARCLAY, SIR GEORGE HEAD.—British Minister in Roumania since 1912. He has great experience of Near Eastern Politics.

BARCLAY, LT.-COL. H. C.—A distinguished Surgeon attached to the New Zealand Forces.

BARNARDISTON, BRIGDAIER-GENERAL NATHANIEL WALTER.—Commander of the British Forces which co-operated with the Japanese Forces in the attack on Tsingtau.

BARODA, MAHARAJAH GAEKWAR OF.—He has offered all his resources to the King-Emperor should they be needed in the War. For portrait, see p. 128.

BATTENBURG, ADMIRAL PRINCE LOUIS OF.—First Sea-Lord of the Admiralty who suddenly resigned his post in October 1914. He has done memorable service in the Admiralty. In a letter to Mr. Churchill announcing his resignation, he wrote: "My birth and parentage have the effect of impairing in some respects my usefulness on the Board of Admiralty." For portrait, see p. 248*d*.

BATTERSBY, MAJ.-GEN. T. PRESTON.—Principal Ordnance Officer of the British Army.

BAVARIA, CROWN PRINCE RUPERT OF.—General in command of the 6th German Army. He belongs to the side of ultra-German patriots and marked favour has been shown him by the German Emperor. He is aged forty-five.

BAVARIA, KING LUDWIG III. OF.—King of Bavaria. He is a devout Catholic and takes great interest in farming.

BAYLEY, VICE-ADMIRAL SIR LEWIS.—Vice-Admiral Commanding the first Squadron of the Home Fleet.

BEATTY, VICE-ADMIRAL SIR DAVID, K.C.B.—Commanding the First Battle Cruiser Squadron of the British Fleet. He struck the first great blow of the War at the German Navy in the fight off Heligoland in August 1914, in an action in which the enemy lost five ships and many more were either sunk or crippled.

BEGBIE, HAROLD.—To Begbie fell the distinction of writing the only war song that received official approval. It is entitled "Fall In." He is a well known author and journalist. The poem is printed on page 253.

BERCHTOLD, COUNT LEOPOLD VON.—The Austro-Hungarian Foreign Secretary. For a short sketch of his life and character, see p. 32*f*; portrait, p. 32*e*.

BERESFORD, ADMIRAL LORD CHARLES WILLIAM DE LA POER, M.P.—Appointed Hon. Col. of the Marine Brigade. He joined the Naval service in 1859 and rose early to distinction. He holds three medals for saving life.

BERNHARDI, VON.—A Retired German General and a popular Writer. For an estimate of his life and writings, see p. 327, portrait, p. 328.

BERNSTORFF.—Once the most popular foreign diplomat in the United States, Bernstorff is now practically an outcast in all except "German-American" circles. Society, of which he was once a petted and courted darling, will have no more of him. He drove the last nail in his own coffin a few weeks ago by his impudent note chastising Uncle Sam for not interpreting "neutrality" in Germany's favour.

BERTIE, RT. HON. SIR FRANCIS LEVESON.—British Ambassador in Paris. He has had long service in the diplomatic line. He has made a reputation in Paris for unusual taciturnity.

BESSELER, GENERAL VON.—Commander of the Army which besieged and occupied Antwerp. He is a skilful and painstaking soldier.

BETHMANN-HOLLWEG, DR. VON THEOBALD.—Chancellor of the German Empire and President of the Prussian Ministry. For a description of his life and qualities, see p. 32*d*, portrait, p. 32*a*.

BEY, TALAAT.—Turkish minister of the Interior. For a sketch of his character and life see p. 278, portrait, p. 278.

BEYERS, GENERAL THE HON. CHRISTIAN FREDERICK.—Apart from General Hertzog, the only Boer Leader who showed sympathy with Germany and joined the rebels with De Wet. He was drowned in the Vaal River in an engagement with the Union Forces.

BHARATPUR, THE MAHARAJAH AND MAHARANEE OF.—This State maintains a force of 1,600 cavalry, 9,000 infantry and 54 heavy guns. These with all other resources were offered to the Emperor on the outbreak of War. For portrait, see p. 124*g*.

BHOPAL, THE SAHIB ZADA OF.—One of the princes who volunteered for the front. He is the future Nawab of Bhopal.

BHUPENDRA SINGH.—H. H. Maharajah of Patiala. See p. 111.

BIKANIR, MAHARAJAH OF.—Colonel in His Majesty's Army now at the Front. See p. 111, portrait, p. 112.

BIRKBECK, MAJ.-GEN. WILLIAM HENRY.—Director of the Remounts at Army Headquarters Service, 1912.

BLUNT, CAPT. WILLIAM FREDRICK, of H.M.S. *Fearless*.—He has been mentioned in Despatches and awarded the D.S.O.

BOCHIN, GENERAL VON.—Commander of one of the German Army Corps in Belgium. He is regarded as an able tactician.

BORDEN, MR. ROBERT LAIRD.—Premier of Canada since 1911, the ablest Parliamentarian in Canadian public life.

BOTHA, GENERAL.—Commander of the British Forces in South Africa and Premier of the Union. For a sketch of his life, see p. 240, portrait, p. 240.

BROADWOOD, LIEUT.-GENERAL ROBERT GEORGE.—Commanding the troops in Southern China.

BRUNSWICK, DUKE OF.—Prince Ernest August, son of the Duke of Cumberland, who is the son of the last King of Hanover. He has married the only daughter of the German Emperor. Previous to the marriage, he gave assurances to the Kaiser that he would support the Fatherland.

BUCHANAN, RT. HON. SIR GEORGE WILLIAM.—British Ambassador at Petrograd. He is a man of conspicuous tact.

BUCKMASTER, SIR S.—Sir Stanley Buckmaster is a clever lawyer, a good speaker, and a hard worker. He made rapid headway at the Bar, and his Parliamentary progress was still more rapid. When Sir Rufus Isaacs was made Lord Chief Justice, Sir John Simon succeeded him as Attorney-General, and Mr. Buckmaster took Sir John's place as Solicitor-General. At the succeeding by-election at Keighley he was opposed by both a Unionist and a Labour candidate, but succeeded in maintaining his position. He is now in the reconstituted War Ministry.

BULOW, GENERAL KARL VON,—Commanding Germany's Second Army in the West. He co-operated in Von Kluck's efforts to defend the Aisne against the Anglo-French Forces.

BULOW, MAJOR VON.—A relative of the Chancellor, he was taken prisoner by the Belgians near Antwerp. He is supposed to be the author of the disgraceful treatment of the civilians at Aerschot.

BULOW, PRINCE VON.—German Ex-Imperial Chancellor for 1900-09. For a sketch, see p. 248*b*, portrait, 248*c*.

BURNS, THE RT. HON. JOHN, M.P.—Ex-President of the Board of Trade. He relinquished office when war broke out. He began life as a candle-factory boy and by sheer force of ability and character he has come to the present eminent position.

CAMBON, JULES MARTIN.—French Ambassador in Berlin.

CADORNA, GENERAL,—General Count Luigi Cadorna, Chief of the General Staff of the Army and Commander-in-Chief of the Italian Armies in the Field, is in his 65th year. He is the son of General Count Raffaele Cadorna, and his own son is a subaltern in the Cavalry Regiment which this fine soldier commanded in 1866 in the war against Austria. Count Cadorna has had considerable service in the field. He succeeded General Pollio as Chief of the General Staff last year. His reputation as a professional soldier has been considerably enhanced by his works on military questions, and he is credited with a unique knowledge of the ground on the Austro-Italian frontier. (See page 216c.)

CAMBON, PIERRE PAUL.—French Ambassador in London; brother of Jules Martin Cambon. He is a member of several Academies, both French and Foreign.

CARSON, SIR EDWARD.—Sir Edward Carson, the most formidable opponent of Home Rule, has since turned the magnificent force of Ulster Volunteers, which owed so much of its success to his inspiration into soldiers for the prosecution of the fight provoked by Germany. His success in Parliament—he was made Solicitor-General for Ireland in June, 1892, and was returned as one of the representatives of Dublin University three months later—was immediate. He was Solicitor-General for England in the Unionist Government which ruled from 1900 to 1905; and not long afterwards succeeded Mr. Walter Long as Chairman of the Irish Unionist Party in the new and Radical House of Commons. He is sixty-one years of age.

CAYZER, SIR CHARLES.—A well known ship-owner. Nine members of his family are now serving in the Army and the Navy—two sons-in-law one of whom is Admiral Jellicoe, three sons, two grandsons and two nephews.

CHAMBERLAIN, AUSTEN.—Mr. Chamberlain, now Secretary for India in the reconstituted coalition ministry, was only forty years old and had been a member of the House of Commons for less than a dozen years when he became Chancellor of the Exchequer. His preceding Ministerial posts had been those of Civil Lord of the Admiralty, Financial Secretary to the Treasury, and Postmaster-General. During the war he has been often called into Council by the Chancellor of the Exchequer on financial questions. He is still young as politicians go, being only fifty-two.

CHETWODE, BRIGADIER-GENERAL SIR PHILIP.—Commander of the Fifth Cavalry Brigade in the Expeditionary Force, see p. 233, portrait, p. 237.

CHRISTIAN, REAR-ADMIRAL ARTHUR HENRY.—Was with Admiral Beatty in the brilliant naval action off Heligoland. He has been Commander of the Third Division of Home Fleet since 1912.

CHURCHILL, THE RT. HON. WINSTON LEONARD.—First Lord of the Admiralty. For a sketch of his life, see p. 222, portrait, p. 221.

CLEMENCEAU, GEORGE EUGENE BENJAMIN.—Founder of *L'Homme Libre* and one of the most potent influences in modern French politics. He is a Doctor of Medicine. He was Minister of the Interior and while in that office, he was nicknamed "The Tiger."

CODRINGTON, LT.-GEN. SIR ALFRED EDWARD.—Now Military Secretary to Lord Kitchener. He served throughout the Boer War in Command of the 1st Battalion Cold-Stream Guards.

COLLET, FLIGHT-LIEUT. CHARLES HERBERT.—The British naval airman, who, after a long flight, dropped three bombs on the Zeppelin sheds at Dusseldorff, one of the most daring feats of the War. He has been much praised and has received the D.S.O.

CONNAUGHT, THE DUKE OF.—Governor-General of Canada. He is the 7th child and the 3rd son of Queen Victoria. He has rendered signal service to the Crown in almost all parts of the Empire.

CONNAUGHT, PRINCE ARTHUR OF.—Only son of H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught. He is an officer in the Scots Greys. He has been often appointed on diplomatic missions and he is very popular wherever he goes. His service in the Expeditionary Force has been much appreciated by Sir John French.

COOCH-BEHAR, THE MAHARAJAH OF.—One of the most distinguished and best known of Indian Rulers. He is also the recipient of great Masonic honours.

CORSI, REAR-ADMIRAL.—He served as Chief of the Staff to Admiral Viale and landed with a Naval detachment and occupied the island of Rhodes in May, 1912, until the arrival of troops.

CRADOCK, REAR-ADMIRAL SIR CHRISTOPHER, G.T.M.—Lost in the sinking of the *Good Hope* in the fight off the Chilian coast. He has done meritorious service in the Navy.

CURZON, EARL.—Though Lord Curzon has never before been a Cabinet Minister he has had much experience of public affairs, having been Under-Secretary for

India, Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and, for eight years, Viceroy of India. Since Lord Rosebery's practical retirement from active public life Lord Curzon has had few peers as a polished, yet vigorous orator. During Lord Lansdowne's recent illness his place as Opposition Leader in the House of Lords was ably filled by Lord Curzon. He entered the House of Lords as an Irish Representative Peer in 1908. The Earldom was conferred upon him some four years ago. He is fifty-six. He has placed his house, Nilders, Broadstairs, at the disposal of the Red Cross Society.

D'AMADE, GENERAL.—A French General. For a sketch of this most English of French Generals, see p. 237, portrait, p. 236.

DE BUNSEN, RT. HON. SIR MAURICE WILLIAM ERNEST.—British Ambassador in Vienna until the outbreak of the war. He had filled several important diplomatic posts before going to the Court of Vienna. K.C.V.O. 1905.

DELBRUECK, PROFESSOR.—The leading German political Professor, who is the successor of the great Treitschke at the University of Berlin, is, like the other official apostles of Culture, also in war-paint. Besides bolstering up the German cause from month to month in his Review, the *Preussische Jahrbucher*, Delbrueck, he is writing copiously for foreign consumption.

DELCASSE, THEOPHILE.—French minister of War. For sketch of his life and qualities, see p. 248c.

DEUNLING, GENERAL VON.—Commanding the German Army Corps under the Crown Prince.

DE LA REY, GENERAL.—A famous Boer Leader in the South African War. He had thrown himself heart and soul into the British cause in the present crisis. But unfortunately he was accidentally shot by the Police in September 1914.

DERNBURG.—The man who was flattered when people called him "the German Joseph Chamberlain" has been hard at work for his country ever since the war began. He was despatched to the United States very early in August to organise the bluff, bluster, and intimidation campaign which has so signally failed to capture the sympathies of our American kinsmen. Dernburg still poses in the U.S.A. as a "German Red Cross delegate," and conducts correspondence on stationery marked with that fictitious emblem.—Frederic William Wile in the *Daily Mail*.

DEWA, ADMIRAL SHIGETO.—Commander of the Japanese Fleet. See p. 224, portrait, 224.

DHOLPUR, MAHARAJA RANA OF.—The King is twenty-one years of age and is a Jat by caste. His Highness is a Honorary Major in the British Army, and has offered his services at the Front.

DJAVID PASHA.—Turkish Ex-Minister of Finance. For a sketch, see p. 280, portrait, p. 276.

DOBELL, BRIG.-GEN. CHARLES MACPHERSON.—Commander of the Anglo-French Force which captured Duala, the capital of the German Colony in the Cameroons. He distinguished himself in the South African War. He has won the D.S.O.

DOYEN, DR. EUGENE LOUIS.—The discoverer of the new treatment for tetanus which is now being applied by the members of the French Military Medical Staff. He has great reputation as a surgeon.

DRYSANDER, DR. ERNEST.—The German Emperor's principal Court preacher. He has been engaged in rousing the people of Berlin to an understanding of the villany of the British in politics and warfare. He is a man of great eloquence and imposing pulpit appearance.

DUFF, COMMANDER ARTHUR A. M.—Commander of H. M. S. *Birmingham* which sank a German submarine in the North Sea on 14th August.

EHRLICH.—This distinguished medical scientist, inventor of "606" is busy at his Royal Prussian Laboratory for Therapeutical Medicine, at Frankfort-on-Main. As Professor Ehrlich is Germany's most eminent bacteriologist, there is plenty of problems for his microscope. Ehrlich signed the appeal to neutral countries issued by all the leading scholars of Germany early in the war but has played no public part since then.

ENVER, PASHA.—Turkish Minister of War. For a detailed sketch of his life and character and his work as the leader of the Young Turks, see p. 276, portrait, p. 277.

EUCKEN, DR. RUDOLF.—Professor of Philosophy at the University of Jena and the author of numerous treatises. Though he has been honoured by many learned societies of Britain, in a recent fulmination against England he has declared his intention of divesting himself of these honours.

EXELMANS, GENERAL.—A brilliant French cavalry officer who was seriously wounded by a shell while charging at the head of his regiment.

FARAVELLI, ADMIRAL.—Vice-Admiral Luigi Faravelli is President of the Superior Council of the Navy. He became Commander-in-Chief of the Italian Fleet on the death of Admiral Aubry on the 4th March, 1912. Previously he had commanded the Second Squadron. On the 7th April, 1912, Vice-Admiral Faravelli's own health broke down, and he had to be relieved.

FARMAN, HENRY.—The well-known French aviator and aeroplane-builder. He is a champion cyclist and motorist. The aerial duration record he made in December 1910, was 8 hours 12 minutes.

FISHER, THE RT. HON. ANDREW.—Prime Minister of the Commonwealth of Australia. Since the War broke out, he has given active support to Australia's action on behalf of the Empire.

FISHER, LORD.—Appointed First Sea-Lord of the Admiralty. For a sketch of this "Kitchener of the Navy," see p. 248*f*, portrait, p. 248*d*.

FOCH, GENERAL.—Has seen forty-six years service in the French Army and has been through two campaigns. During the present War, he defended the French centre very gallantly against the enemy, finally driving the enemy back northwards by a vigorous offensive movement. He possesses great energy and tenacity and remarkable skill in manœuvring.

FORESTER, DR. WILLIAM.—Professor of Astronomy at the University of Berlin. He has achieved fame by his refusal to join with the ninety-two German professors, who signed the false and exaggerated impeachment of the British policy before the War. He did not believe his countrymen's lie that England and France had violated the neutrality of Belgium.

CONSTANTINE I.
King of the Hellenes.

SIGNOR GIUSEPPE MOTTA,
President of the Swiss Confederation.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BURDWAN.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BOBBILI.

MAHARAJA CHANDRA SHAMSHAR JUNG.

THE THAKUR SAHEB OF LIMBDI.

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BARON STEPHAN DE BURIAN,
Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister.

LIEUT.-GEN. OKA.
Japanese Minister of War.

GENERAL BARON WAHIS.
Belgian Chief of Staff.

FRANZ FERDINAND, THE ARCHDUKE.—Late heir-presumptive to the Thrones of Austria and Hungary, who was murdered by two Austro-Servian conspirators at Serajevo in June, 1914. His murder will long be remembered in the world's history as the cause, however insignificant, which led to the greatest war of nations, the world has ever seen. For portrait, see p. 25.

FRANZ, PRINCE OF BAVARIA.—Fifth son of the King of Bavaria. Early in the War he was wounded.

FRENCH, SIR JOHN.—Field-Marshal and Commander-in-Chief of the British Expeditionary Force in France. See p. 218, portrait, p. 220.

FUERSTENBERG, PRINCE.—Of Prince Fuerstenberg, the Kaiser's long-time "chum," little has been heard during the war. In the earlier stages one saw frequent photographs showing him in the entourage of the Kaiser at the various battle-fronts. It has just been announced that this one-time multi-millionaire courtier, who is an Austrian and not a German, has gone bankrupt. Fuerstenberg has been an honorary officer of various German regiments and may now be on active service.

FUSTENBERG, PRINCE MAXMILLAN EGON-ZU.—One of the greatest of the European nobles and an intimate and devoted friend of the German Emperor. He owns many castles, estates, mills, factories, etc.

FUZET, MONSIGNOR EDMOND FREDERIC.—Archbishop of Rouen and a prominent worker for the Belgian wounded and refugees.

GALLIENI, GENERAL JOSEPH.—Military Governor of Paris. He had served as Military Commander in French Soudan, in Indo-China and Madagascar. He is Vice-President of the French Geographical Society. He has published numerous volumes about the Soudan and Madagascar.

GEORGE V.—King of England. For a sketch of his life, character and aims, see p. 171, portrait, p. 168.

GEORGE, MR. DAVID LLOYD.—Chancellor of the Exchequer. For a detailed sketch of his life and character, see p. 248a, portrait, p. 248*d*.

GERMAN EMPRESS AND QUEEN OF PRUSSIA.—Augusta Victoria, Princess of Schleswig-Holstein, born in 1858 is thus nearly a year older than her Imperial husband. From childhood, she has shown keen interest and participation in works of charity. Simple in her dress and habits, she holds, however, immense power over her husband. She has strong views on religion. The Empress is the mother of six sons and one daughter.

GLADSTONE, VISCOUNT.—He has taken over the arduous and responsible duties of Honorary Treasurer in the War Refugees Committee.

GLADSTONE, MR. W. G. C.—Grandson of the great Gladstone. He was killed on the battlefield in Flanders in April 1915. He was acting as a Lieutenant in the Royal Fusileers.

GOLTZ, VON DER.—No German military man has been so busy in the war as "Goltz Pasha," now commanding the First Turkish Army before Constantinople. During the early weeks of the occupation of Belgium Von der Goltz was Governor-General of the outraged country. He was then despatched to Turkey, where he had organised defeat for the Sultan's Armies in the Balkan War, to assist Enver Bey in dragging Turkey into the war on German side. Von der Goltz is the most important thinker of the German war machine and the fight which the deluded Turks are now making for their life is undoubtedly organised by him. See p. 238; for portrait, p. 236.

GOSCHEN, RT. HON. SIR WILLIAM EDWARD.—British Ambassador in Berlin at the outbreak of War. Previously to becoming Ambassador in Berlin, he had served in Austria. He is the leading famous figure in the White Paper revealing Britain's efforts to avert war or restrict its limits.

GOUGH, MAJOR-GEN. H. DE LA POER.—Commanded the 3rd Cavalry Brigade in the British Expeditionary Force. He is specially mentioned in Despatches. He belongs to a famous family of soldiers.

GOUGH, BRIG.-GEN. JOHN EDMOND, V.C.—Specially mentioned in Despatches by Sir John French for his services with the Headquarters Staff.

GREY, SIR EDWARD.—Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. For a sketch of his life and character, see p. 32a; portrait, p. 32d.

GREY, CAPTAIN JOHN.—Of the Military wing of the Royal Flying Corps. He was awarded the Legion of Honour by the French authorities in recognition of his services. He was taken prisoner through an accident compelling him to descend inside the German lines.

GRIMM, ADMIRAL VON.—One of the Kaiser's Naval Adjutants, and a great authority on torpedoes and submarine. He is believed to be in charge of this branch of the German Navy.

GWALIOR, MAHARAJA OF.—His Highness offered to the Government the Hospital Ship, *Gwalior*, in the China Expedition of 1900. His Highness has rendered notable service to the Empire on several occasions. For portrait, see p. 112.

GWINNER, ARTHUR VON.—Director-General of the Deutsche Bank and member of the Prussian House of Lords. He was largely responsible for the conception of the Bagdad Railway. It was through his exertions that Germany got a dominating voice in the construction and administration of the line. The Bank has deposits amounting to between 75 to 80 millions sterling. Herr Arthur von Gwinner is a conspicuous factor in German war finance, though it is nominally within the jurisdiction of the Imperial Bank. "There can be little doubt," says Mr. F. W. Wile in the *Daily Mail*, "that the von Gwinner policy is now being pursued at the German Treasury. Von Gwinner himself more than once declined to become the official arbiter of the Fatherland's chaotic money matters; but I am positive it is his hand in reality which is now at the helm, though Helfferich has the rank and title."

HAECKEL, PROFESSOR ERNEST.—The famous Professor of Zoology at the University of Jena. He is one of the principal signatories of the German professorial protest against the "iniquity" of England,

He is regarded as the main advocate in Germany of the Darwinian theory. The violence of his controversial methods has estranged many scientific men however. Probably his best known work is the "Riddle of the Universe." For portrait, see p. 224.

HAESELER, FIELD-MARSHAL COUNT VON.—The grand old man of the German Army, having been born in 1836. When war broke out, he volunteered his services and was given a position of importance. He is reputed to be a very strict and ruthless disciplinarian.

HAIG, LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SIR DOUGLAS.—Commander of the First Army Corps in Sir John French's Expeditionary Force. See p. 233, portrait, p. 233.

HALIM PASHA, H. H. PRINCE SAID.—Grand Vizier and Minister of Foreign Affairs. For a sketch of his character and work, see p. 278.

HALDANE, LORD.—Lord High Chancellor of Britain. For a sketch of his life and attainments, see p. 248g.

HAMILTON, GENERAL SIR BRUCE.—Commander-in-Chief of the Scotish Command since 1909. He showed his mettle in the Boer War.

HAMILTON, MAJOR-GENERAL HUBERT IAN WETHERALL.—Killed in action. He commanded the British Force of Marines which landed at Ostend. He is a distinguished authority on the strategy of the land, the sea and the air.

HAMILTON, GENERAL SIR IAN STANDISH MONTEITH.—Inspector-General of the Forces. General Hamilton is one of the most desperately unlucky men in the British Army. At no time has he gone into action without being wounded. He has done valuable service to the army.

HARDEN, MAXIMILIAN.—Herr Harden is quite as popular a public speaker in Germany as he is a writer. Besides the huge audience he addresses weekly in his vitriolic little magazine, *Zukunft*, he talks to thousands from the lecture-platform and during the war he has been in special demand all over the country.

HARDINGE OF PENHURST, BARON.—Viceroy of India since 1910. It is to Lord Hardinge's liberal policy towards the people that we should ascribe the marvellous enthusiasm of the Indian Princes and people to fight for the Empire against the German aggression. His term of office has been extended till March next. For portrait, see p. 108.

HARNACK, ADOLF VON.—One of the most famous of German Professors and the author of numerous well-known works on Political criticism. He is a leading spirit among the anti-British throng.

HAUPTMANN.—Germany's foremost poet and dramatist, although the bearer of an honorary doctor's degree of Oxford, has lined up with the other "culturists" against the hated British foe. Periodically the German Press contains a fresh outburst from Hauptmann's pen.

HENDERSON, MAJOR-GEN. SIR DAVID.—The creator of the Flying Corps of the British Army. He entered the Army in 1883. He is an authority on "Reconnaissance." It is due to him that the British have a Flying Corps of which Sir John French has spoken so eulogistically.

HENDERSON, MR. ARTHUR.—Mr. Henderson entered the House of Commons some twelve years ago, and, by his upright and straightforward conduct, has won the good opinion of all political parties. He has twice presided over the Parliamentary Labour Party. He was first elected to the Chairmanship in 1908 in succession to Mr. Keir Hardie and held the post for two years. When Mr. Ramsay Macdonald resigned the position last August owing to his peculiar views concerning the war, Mr. Henderson was chosen to succeed him. He has for some time been secretary of the General Labour Party. Four years ago he served on the Railway Commission. He has done yeoman service in the recruiting campaign and was recently sworn of the Privy Council. A native of Glasgow, he was born in 1893 and worked for some years as a moulder at Newcastle-on-Tyne.

HEYDEBRAND, DE ERNEST VON.—The leader of the Agrarian Party in the Reichstag. Probably he is the most important politician in Germany without ministerial rank. He is known as the "uncrowned king of Prussia." He is a most forceful orator and ready debater.

HINDENBURG, FIELD-MARSHAL VON.—Commander of the German Army in East Prussia. He forced the Russian General Rennenkampf to retreat. Hindenburg has recently been transferred to Poland where he has been in command during the furious fighting between Warsaw and the German frontier.

HOFTZENDROF, GENERAL VON.—Chief of the Austrian General Staff. For an account of his life and military ambition, see p. 221, portait, p. 221.

HOLLWEG, BETHMANN.—The German Imperial Chancellor. For a sketch of his life and portrait, see p. 32d.

HOOD, REAR-ADMIRAL THE HON. HORACE LAMBERT ALEXANDER.—In Command of the Flotilla of the Monitors and other warships which did splendid service by shelling the Germans who endeavoured to advance from Ostend to Calais. He has put in long and creditable service in the British Navy.

HYMANN, DR. LUDWIG.—The notorious chief of the Press Department of the German Foreign Office. He has made a considerable reputation for the dexterity with which he "spoon feeds" the public in the matter of official public news.

IDAR, MAHARAJAH OF.—Now at the Front. See p. 112.

IFTIKHAR, AGHI KHAN.—Nawab of Jaora, now at the Front. See p. 112.

INGENOHL, ADMIRAL VON.—Chief Commander of the German Fleet. He entered the Navy in 1877, and has seen service in all the seven seas. His appointment however came as a surprise to Naval circles in Germany.

ITALY, KING VICTOR EMMANUEL III. OF.—Born in 1869, he succeeded to the throne in 1900. The first thirteen years of his reign are marked by a falling off in the warmth of Italy's affections for the Germanic partners of the Triple Alliance as is shown by

her attitude in the Morocco crises and her war with Turkey. For a sketch, see page 216c. For portrait, see p. 216d.

JACKSON, ADMIRAL SIR HENRY BRADWARDINE.—Chief of the Naval War Staff from 1912 to 1914. He is a Wireless Telegraphy expert.

JAGO, GOTTLIEB VON.—German Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. For a sketch of his life and work, see p. 32c, portrait, p. 32d.

JELLICOE, ADMIRAL SIR JOHN.—Commander-in-Chief of the British Navy. For a sketch of his life and naval career, see p. 223, portrait, p. 221.

JOFFRE, GENERAL.—Generalissimo of the French Army. For a sketch of his life and military career, see p. 220, portrait, p. 220.

JODHPUR, H. H. MAHARAJAH OF.—Accompanied Sir Pratap Singh to the Front. See p. 112.

JOHARU, THE NAWAB OF.—Offered, jointly with the Jam of Las Bela and the Wali of Kalat, an equipment of camels for the War.

JOSEPH, FRANCIS.—Emperor of Austria. For a full sketch of the Emperor's life and work, see p. 162, portrait, p. 176.

KALAT, THE WALI OF.—He had a part in the offer of an equipment of camels for the War.

KASHMIR, MAHARAJAH OF.—Major-Gen. H. H. Sir Pratap Singh, G.C.S.I., was most enthusiastic in his support of the British Government and soon after the declaration of war, began to stir up his people. He addressed a large meeting of 20,000 people at Srinagar in support of the Imperial Fund for the Indian Expeditionary Force. For portrait, see p. 124a.

KEIM, GENERAL.—President of the German Navy League. He is one of the most irrepressible of the Pan-German party. He has been tirelessly stumping the country on behalf of a big Fleet. He has always been regarded as a bitter enemy of England.

KESSINGER, LIEUT.-COL. VON.—Commander of the German Forces at Kiao Chau. He has about 6,000 men under him.

KISHANGARH, THE MAHARAJAH OF.—Although fifty-four years of age, the Maharajah insisted on accompanying the Indian army to France. He belongs to an illustrious family. For portrait, see p. 124d.

KITCHENER, LORD.—Secretary of State for War. For sketch of his life and services to the Empire, see p. 217, portrait, p. 220.

KLUCK, GENERAL VON.—Leader of the German Right Wing which marched on Paris. For a sketch of his life and abilities, see p. 239, portrait, p. 233.

KOESTER, VON.—Von Koester, Grand Old Man of the German Navy and officially retired, is still in service as President of the German Navy League. War has not silenced him or withered his infinite activities. It is obviously von Koester's war-time task, says Mr. F. W. Wile, to fan popular passions against the "foe of foes." He is a glib talker and well fitted for the malevolent job.

KRUPP.—Herr Krupp (who was clothed with the right to use that name as a wedding present from the Kaiser) made a thorough-going inspection of British dockyards and armament works, accompanied by a staff of his Essen experts, during the third week of June, 1914. Six weeks later England and Germany were at war. For a sketch, see p. 248c, portrait, p. 248e.

LALAING, COUNT DE.—Belgian Minister in London since 1903. The Count has succeeded in raising in England a large sum of money for the relief of the destitute Belgians.

LANSDOWNE, THE MARQUESS OF.—One of the few surviving statesmen who separated from Mr. Gladstone on Home Rule, Lord Lansdowne has spent a long, useful life in the service of the State. He became Under Secretary for War in 1872. In 1880, he was Under Secretary for India. These were his apprenticeships to wider public experiences, which have included the Governor-Generalship of Canada, the Viceroylty of India, Secretary for War, and Foreign Secretary. Lord Lansdowne has led the Unionist Party in the House of which he is a member since 1902, and the position has been one of considerable difficulty more than once since 1906. He is now a minister without a portfolio in the new war cabinet. He is now seventy years of age.

LAPERERE, ADMIRAL BOUE DE.—Commander of the French Fleet. See p. 224, portrait, p. 224.

LASB ELA, THE JAM OF.—One of the three chiefs of Baluchistan who offered a camel equipment to the Government.

LAW, MR. BONAR.—Mr. Bonar Law, the Leader of the Opposition, has now given the highest possible proof of his patriotism by becoming a member of the reconstructed Cabinet. He has been a member of the House of Commons for some fifteen years and is fifty-six. For a sketch of his life and his attitude in the present war, see p. 248b, portrait, p. 248d.

LEMAN, GENERAL.—Belgian General, the heroic defender of Liege. See p. 235, portrait, p. 236.

LICHNOWSKY, PRINCE.—Unquestionably the saddest diplomatic figure in the world at this moment is the late German Ambassador in London. Reports from Berlin declare that he is in ignominious disgrace, as are in fact most of the men who were serving abroad at the outbreak of war. For a description of his life and qualities, see p. 248f, portrait, p. 248e.

LIEBERMANN.—Prussia's best-known living painter Max Liebermann, says Mr. Feredric W. Wile, used to lie awake at night hating the Kaiser. If war has not robbed him, as it has so many Germans, of intelligence and mental independence, he is shedding no tears over the troubles of the man whom he once said history would call "William the Tasteless." "Swaggering militarism used to disgust Liebermann, and I risk the assertion that the war does not fill his fearless soul with joy."

LIEBKNECHT, KARL.—A prominent member of the Social Democratic Party. He does not fully approve of the misguided military policy of Germany.

LONG, MR. WALTER.—Mr. Walter Hume Long was born in 1854, and first entered Parliament for the Northern Division of Wiltshire in 1880. His parliamentary experiences are at once long and honourable. He has held several distinguished offices under various

Governments. When Mr. Balfour resigned the Unionist Leadership in November, 1911, Mr. Long and Mr. Austen Chamberlain were regarded as his most likely successors. Eventually, however, both retired in favour of Mr. Bonar Law. He has taken a prominent part in the fight against the Home Rule.

LUXEMBERG, THE GRAND DUCHESS OF.—The Girl-ruler who barred Germany with her car. For a full account of her little kingdom and its history, see p. 209, portrait, p. 209.

LUXEMBERG, ROSA.—One of the chief Editors of the notorious Socialist Journal, "Vorwaerts." On account of her violent language she is known as the "Sanguinary Rosa." She is now in imprisonment for a libel on the Prussian Army.

MACREADY, MAJ.-GEN. SIR C. F. NEVIL.—Director of Personal Services at the War Office. He is acting as Adjutant-General with the Head Quarters Staff in France and has been specially mentioned in the Despatches.

MADAN SINGH, H. H. MAHARAJAH OF KISHENGARH.—Now at the Front. See p. 112.

MADDEN, REAR-ADMIRAL CHARLES EDWARD.—Chief of Staff to Admiral Jellicoe. He commanded the Home Fleet in 1911 and 1912.

MAHOMED V., SULTAN OF TURKEY.—For a full sketch of his life and rule, see p. 273, portrait, p. 276.

MAHMUD MOUHKTAR PASHA.—Turkish Ambassador in Berlin. For a sketch of his life and training, see p. 279.

MALLET, SIR LOUIS DU PAU.—British Ambassador to Turkey since 1913.

MANTEUFFEL, MAJOR VON.—A German General who has been held mainly responsible for the destruction of Louvain. It is said that he has been deprived of his command but it is doubtful whether it was done for this.

MARIX, LIEUTENANT REGINALD.—One of the three Naval airmen who carried out the second raid and destroyed a Zeppelin Shed at Dusseldorf. He was awarded the D. S. O. for his Dusseldorf exploit.

MARY, PRINCESS.—One of the most touching appeals issued in connection with the war was that sent out by the young Princess Mary for Christmas presents "from the whole nation to every soldier at the front and to every sailor afloat." She belongs to the League of Mercy.

MARY, QUEEN.—Her Majesty, soon after the declaration of War, inaugurated a "Work for Women Fund," the object of which was to find employment for women deprived of their livelihood by the War. For portrait, see frontispiece.

MAX, ADOLPHE.—The Burgomaster of Brussels. For an account of his life and the heroism he displayed in the present war, see p. 248*d*, protrait, p. 248*c*.

MENSDORFF-PONILLY, COUNT ALBERT VON.—Late Austrian Ambassador in London. He occupied an exceptional position as his grandmother was the sister of Duchess of Kent.

METHUEN, FIELD-MARSHAL LORD.—Descended from a Lord Chancellor of Ireland. He rendered noteworthy service in the Boer War. He is now Colonel of the Scots Guards.

MIKADO.—For a sketch of his life and rule, see p. 174, portrait, p. 176.

MILLERAND, ALEXANDRE.—French Minister of War. He is a barrister by profession.

MILLO, ADMIRAL.—Rear-Admiral Enrico Millo, Minister of Marine, was the officer in command of the torpedo flotilla which made a raid in the Dardanelles on the night of the 18th July, 1912, at which time he was serving as Chief of the Staff to the Duke of the Abruzzi in the *Vettor Pisani*, flagship of the Adriatic Division, from which, apparently, the force was detached. Captain Millo was promoted to Rear-Admiral for this exploit and decorated with the Military Order of Savoy.

MOLTKE, GENERAL VON.—Commander-in-Chief of the German Army. For an account of his life and military qualities, see p. 219, portrait, p. 220.

MONTENEGRO, KING NICHOLAS PETROVITCH OF.—On the outbreak of the great war, this little mountain country responded to Austria's attack upon Serbia by declaring war on the Dual Monarchy. The country, though small, is unassailable by reason of its mountains and its fierce and warlike people.

MORLEY OF BLACKBURN, VISCOUNT O. M.—Ex-Cabinet Minister who retired on the eve of the War. He has been Secretary of State for Ireland and also for India. One of the greatest living English men of letters.

MULLER, ADMIRAL VON.—One of the German Emperor's naval Aides-de-Camp. He was attaché to the German Embassy in London and made secret communications to Berlin about the British Navy.

MULLER, COMMANDER KARL VON.—Was Captain of the famous German Cruiser *Emden*. He did notorious work in the Indian Ocean by sinking numerous merchantmen and also bombarded Madras. His cruiser was at last destroyed by H. M. S. *Sidney* off Keeling Island.

MUN, CUMBE ADRIEN ALBERT MARIE DE.—Author of the article on the present war published in the *Echo de Paris* which attracted much public attention.

MURRAY, SIR ARCHIBALD JAMES, MAJOR-GENERAL.—Chief of Staff in the British Expeditionary Force. See p. 240.

MYSORE, MAHARAJAH OF.—One of the premier rulers of India. His Highness gave Rs. 50 lakhs towards the maintenance of the Indian troops. For portrait, see p. 257.

NAWANAGAR, THE JAM SAHIB OF.—Known universally in England as Prince "Ranji," the famous cricketer. He undertook the organisation of a special battalion of 1,000 native troops to reinforce the Indian contingent in France. For portrait, see p. 124*h*.

NELLES, COLONEL C. M.—A Canadian Officer appointed to command the Royal Canadian Dragoons on Service in Europe.

NEPAL, THE PRIME MINISTER OF.—Maharaja Sir Chandra Samsher Jung Bahadur Rana placed all the military resources of the State at the disposal of the Government together with three lakhs of rupees for the purchase of machine-guns for the British

Gurkha regiments. Large donations were also made by the State to the several Relief-Funds.

NICHOLAS II.—The Czar of Russia. For a sketch of his life and character, see p. 165, portrait, p. 168.

NICHOLAS, GRAND DUKE.—Commander-in-Chief of the Russian Army. See p. 221, portrait, p. 231.

NICHOLSON, FIELD-MARSHAL LORD.—A soldier whose life has been crowded with active service. He was Military Secretary to Lord Roberts in the South African War.

NIETZSCHE, FRIEDRICH.—German Philosopher and man of letters of the last century; Champion of the "Superman" and the advocate of Prussian Militarism. For a sketch of his life and teachings, see p. 289, portrait, p. 288.

OKUMA, COUNT.—Prime Minister of Japan. For a detailed account of his life and work as a statesman, see p. 32y, portrait, p. 344.

ORCHA, MAHARAJAH OF.—Head of the great Bundela family of Garwhar Rajputs.

OSCAR, PRINCE OF PRUSSIA.—Fifth son of the German Emperor, twenty-six years old. He had while taking part in the war an acute attack of heart weakness and was invalided home, portrait, p. 232.

PACHITCH, NICHOLAS.—The Prime Minister of Servia. For a description of his life and personality, see p. 32f, portrait, p. 32e.

PALANPUR, THE DIWAN OF.—One of the Indian notables who was most anxious to go to the front was this Diwan who belongs to an Afghan family.

PARSEVAL, MAJOR VON.—A distinguished German aeronaut and the inventor of a semi-rigid airship.

PATEY, REAR-ADMIRAL SIR GEORGE.—Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Australian Navy. He organised and completed the successful raid on the German Colony in the Bismarck Archipelago.

PAU, GENERAL.—French General, the Victor of Alsace. For a sketch of his life and qualities, see p. 236, portrait, p. 238.

PERTAB NARAYAN SINGH, SIR.—A veteran Indian friend of Britain, who although seventy years of age, would not be denied his right to serve in the Front. For a sketch, see page 234, portrait, p. 240.

PETER.—King of Servia. For a sketch of his life and character, see p. 175, portrait, p. 176.

PLUMER, LIEUT.-GEN. SIR HERBERT CHARLES ONSLOW.—The hero of the relief of Mafeking in the Boer War.

POINCARE, M.—The French President. For a sketch of his work and career, see. p. 150, portrait 176.

POSADOWSKY.—The "White Count," as the well-known Liberal statesman is known, is active in the various philanthropic and civic departments of the war. An expert economist and the best Home Secretary and Finance Minister Germany ever had, his talents are in special demand in connection with the food problem and mobilising of Germany's internal life for war purposes. Posadowsky, says Mr. F. W. Wile in the *Daily Mail*, always impressed me as a sincere lover of England and English Institutions, and I have seen no word or act of his savouring of recantation.

POTIOREK, FIELD MARSHAL VON.—Master of Ordnance in the Austro-Hungarian Army. He is largely consulted by Austrian strategists and has been in command of the armies operating in Galicia.

POURTALES, COUNT FREDERICH VON.—Late German Ambassador at St. Petersburg. He seems to have made little effort towards any peaceful settlement.

PRESBITERO, REAR-ADMIRAL.—Commanded the second division of the First Squadron during the Tripolitan War. It was this division which made a demonstration off the outer forts of the Dardanelles on the 18th April 1912.

PRIMROSE, THE HON. NEIL, M.P.—A son of Lord Rosebery. He is a Lieutenant in the Bucks Hussars.

PRINCE OF PRUSSIA, HENRY.—Prince Henry of Prussia, after spending the three or four days preceding war in a confidential conference with British Government and naval leaders, has been at the Emperor's right hand in the continuous council of war over which his brother presides. Prince Henry, whose headquarters is at Kiel, is credited with being a keen naval strategist and is taking an active part in determining the war policy of Germany at sea. His intimate knowledge of the British Navy, including organisation, ships, and *personnel*, is undoubtedly a great asset for his country at this time.—Frederic William Wile in his article on "Men around the Kaiser."

PRINCE OF WALES, THE.—For a sketch, see p. 235, portrait, p. 240.

PRINCE OF GERMANY, THE CROWN.—Commander of a section of the German Army. Since his ignominious retreat from the Marne, the Kaiser's heir has been in almost total eclipse. For sketch, see p. 239. For portrait, see p. 237.

PRUSSIA, PRINCE ADALBERT OF.—Third son of the German Emperor. His residence is at Kiel, and after the declaration of war it was stated that he had been appointed to the command of a torpedo flotilla; portrait, see p. 232.

PRUSSIA, PRINCE AUGUST WILHELM OF.—Fourth son of the German Emperor. He is the most intellectual of the Kaiser's sons and a man of learning; portrait, see p. 232.

PRUSSIA, PRINCE EITEL FREDERICH OF.—Second son of the Emperor. He is in active service at the Front. The Prince is very popular in Berlin; portrait, see p. 232.

PRUSSIA, PRINCE HENRY OF.—The only brother of the Kaiser. Prince Henry is regarded as a first-class seaman and an able diplomatist. He was appointed to the command of the German active battle-fleet in succession to Von Koester. He is a great motorist, golfer and tennis-player.

PRUSSIA, PRINCE JOACHIM OF.—Sixth' son of the Kaiser. Early in the war, he was seriously wounded in the thigh, portrait; see p. 232.

PRUSSIA, WILHELM FREDERICH, CROWN PRINCE OF.—Born 1882. He made a tour through

the East in 1903. One of his most singular characteristics is a profound admiration for Napoleon. Intellectually, he does not seem to be more than a mediocre.

PUDUKOTA, RAJAH OF.—"All I possess" was the offer of this Indian Chief when asked if he was prepared to help Britain in the great war. He was in London at that time but at once hastened to his territory to raise a regiment of his people.

PULTENEY, MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM, C.B., D.S.O.—Commander of the Sixth Division of the Irish Command. See p. 237.

PUTNIK, GENERAL.—Chief of the Servian Army Staff. For a sketch of his life and military training, see p. 222, portrait, p. 221.

RAMPUR, SAHIZEZADA NASIR ALI KHAN OF.—This State furnished a large contingent for the Indian Force in Europe.

RANKEN, CAPTAIN HARRY SHERWOOD, V.C.—Of the Royal Army Medical Corps. Awarded the Victoria Cross for tending the wounded in the trenches under rifle fire at Hantresues. He has since died of his wounds.

RATHENAU, EMIL.—The President of the General Electric Company, heads the industrial organisation which, next to Krupp's, is the greatest in Germany. It is now turning out large quantities of telephone, telegraph, wireless, signalling and other electrical equipment for the Army and Navy. Its vast works are devoted almost exclusively to Government work. The "A. E. G.," as Rathenau's huge company is popularly known, is, like other great works, also manufacturing ammunition on a large scale.—Frederic William Wile in the *Daily Mail.*

RATLAM, RAJAH OF.—One of the Indian Chiefs who went with the Indian Troops to France; portrait, p. 124s.

RAWLINSON, MAJ.-GEN. SIR HENRY SEIMOUR.—Commander of an Army Corps of Britain. He had seen service in India, in South Africa, and other places and earned fame as a soldier.

REDMOND, JOHN EDWARD, M.P.—Leader of the Irish Nationalist Party. For a sketch, see p. 248c; portrait, p. 248d.

REID, RT. HON. SIR GEORGE HOUSTON.—High Commissioner for Australia. Since the outbreak of the war, he has taken a keen interest in the movement set on foot by the Australians to assist the Empire.

REINHARDT, MAX.—Reinhardt, normally the busiest Theatrical Manager in the world, is not letting war to interfere with his activities. Reinhardt is an Austrian subject, and though well under forty-five and sturdy, does not seem to have been called up for service.

RENNENKAMPF, GENERAL.—Leader of the Russian Army operating against Germany. See p. 238, portrait, p. 236.

REVEL, REAR-ADMIRAL THAON DE.—Commanded the Fourth Division, Second Squadron, during the Tripolitaine War.

REVENTLOW, COUNT ERNST VON.—The well-known anti-English Journalist on the staff of the *Deutsche Tages-Zeitung.* He is a determined enemy of England and has been greatly instrumental in poisoning the minds of the German people.

RICCI, REAR-ADMIRAL BOREA.—Commanded the Training Division during the war with Turkey, and on the 5th October, 1912, landed in command of the temporary garrison of Tripoli, of which he was appointed interim Governor. He took part in the blockade of Venezuela, and was present at the battle of Chemulpo during the Russo-Japanese War, being decorated by the Czar for his efforts to save the crews of the Russian Men of War *Variag* and *Korietz.*

RIDDER, HERMANN.—Owner and director of the New York *Staats-Zeitung.* He is a German by birth. He has built up one of the most widely circulated German, newspapers in America. He is anti-English in views.

ROBERTSON, JOHN MACKINNON, M.P.—Liberal M.P. He is now actively engaged in making war on Germany's trade. He is a brilliant writer and speaker.

ROBERTSON, MAJ.-GEN. SIR WILLIAM ROBERT.—Quartermaster-General with the Expeditionary Force in France. He has been mentioned in the Despatches by Sir John French for his services during the retreat from Mons.

ROCCA, VICE-ADMIRAL.—Chief of the Naval War Staff, is an officer of promise who has not, so far, come very much into notice.

RODD, RT. HON. SIR JAMES RENNELL.—British Ambassador since 1908. Born in 1858, he has earned a brilliant reputation as a diplomatist, author, and poet.

ROOSEVELT, COLONEL THEODORE.—One of the best known men in American Public Life. He has taken a leading part in America to uphold the justice of the cause of the Allies.

ROSE, COMMANDER FRANK FORESTER.—Of H. M. S. *Laurel.* He has been awarded the D.S.O. for his gallantry during the fight in the fight off Heligoland on the 28th August, 1914.

RUNCIMAN, MRS. WALTER.—Wife of the Rt. Hon. Walter Runciman. She did valuable work as a member of the War Refugees' Committee.

RUZSKEY, GENERAL NICHOLAS VLADIMEROVITCH.—Most prominent officer of the Russian General Staff. For a sketch of his life, see p. 237, portrait, p. 236.

SACHIN, NAWAB OF.—See p. 112.

SRI SAJJAN SING.—Raja of Rutlam, now at the Front. See p. 112

SAMSON, COMMANDER CHARLES RUMNEY.—The best known of the British Naval airmen. He made the first successful flight from a British Man-of-War. He was in command of the Armoured Motor Support and did splendid service. Awarded D.S.O.

SAXE-COBURG AND GOTHA, THE DUKE OF.—The ruler of this small principality is a Prince of the Royal House of Britain. Since the outbreak of the present War, a Resolution has been passed that if the present family should die out, a German successor should be sought.

SALANDRA, SIGNOR.—Antonio Salandra is an Apulian of firm character and penetrating intelligence. Salandra took office as Prime Minister in March, 1914 in succession to Signor Giolitti. (See page. 216c.)

SAXONY, KING FREDERICK AUGUSTE III. OF. King Frederick is most popular though his marriage-relations are of an unfortunate character. He is a Roman Catholic and is reputed to possess immense wealth.

SAXONY, PRINCE MAX OF.—Younger brother of the King of Saxony. Many years ago, he relinquished worldly rank and took Orders in the Church of Rome. Prince Max is now at the Front as a field preacher.

SAZONOFF, M. SERGE.—The Russian Foreign Minister. For a short account, see p. 32g, portrait, p. 32e.

SCHLIFFEN, COUNT VON.—A Prussian General Field-Marshal.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN, PRINCE CHRISTIAN OF.—Is well-known in English public life. He has made his home in England. He lost his claim to a kingdom through the annexation of Schleswig-Holstein by Germany.

SCHONBURG-WALDENBURG, PRINCE OTTO VON.—Was killed in action early in the war. He belongs to one of the oldest aristocratic houses of Germany.

SCHEL.—The German newspaper king; he sold the popular *Lokal-Anzeiger* to a syndicate of German super-patriots six months before the war began, but his great organising genius continues to be at the disposal of the Government in its policy of befooling public opinion.—Mr. F. W. Wile in the *Daily Mail*.

SCHWEINITZ, GENERAL COUNT VON.—In charge of a Brigade in Alsace. He is considered the best authority on Ordnance.

SCLATER, LIEUT.-GEN. SIR HENRY CRICKTON.—Appointed on the outbreak of war a member of the Army Council.

SEELEY, THE RT. HON. JOHN EDWARD BERNARD, M.P.—Went to the Front on the staff of Sir John French. He is the only practical life-boatman in the House of Commons.

SELBORNE, THE EARL of.—The son of Lord Chancellor Selborne, and the son-in-law of the great Lord Salisbury, Lord Selborne has inherited a large share of the Parliamentary gifts of his father, and has shown much of that grasp of public affairs which was possessed in so eminent a degree by his father-in-law. He sat in the House of Commons as Viscount Wolmer for the ten years preceding the death of the first Lord Selborne. Soon afterwards he became Under Secretary for the Colonies. From 1900 till towards the end of Mr. Balfour's Government he was First Lord of the Admiralty, and he subsequently served for five years as High Commissioner for South Africa. During the Parliament Bill controversy he was one of the leading members of the "No surrender" group. He is not yet fifty-six.

SERBIA, CROWN PRINCE ALEXANDER OF.—Commander-in-Chief of the Serbian army on the outbreak of the great war. He is the second son of King Peter.

SERBIA, PRINCE GEORGE OF.—Elder son of King Peter. By a series of mad freaks he became estranged from his father.

SHEKI-UL-ISLAM, THE.—Head of the Turkish Church. See p. 280.

SIPPE, LIEUTENANT SIDNEY V.—A British airman who accompanied Spenser-Gray and Lieutenant Marix in the air-raid on Dusseldorf and Freidrichshafen. He is a daring officer.

SMITH-DORIEN, GEN. SIR H. L., G.C.B.—Commander of the Second Army Corps in Sir John French's Expeditionary Force. For an account of his service in the War, see p. 233, portrait, p. 237.

SMITH, RT. HON. FREDERIC EDWIN, K.C., M.P.—Mr. F. E. Smith on the outbreak of the war was appointed controller of the Press Bureau. He resigned it on going to the Front.

SMUTS, GENERAL J. C.—Minister of Finance and Defence for South African Union. He did splendid service in the Boer War.

SNOW, MAJ.-GEN. SIR THOMAS D'OYLEY.—Commander of the Fourth Division since 1911. He was specially commended by Sir John French for his skilful work during the retreat from Mons.

SOUCHOW, CAPTAIN.—Commander of the German Dreadnought, *Goeben*. This ship, however, has been seriously handled by a Russian Squadron.

SONNINO, BARON.—Sidney Sonnino, the son of an Italian-Jewish father and of a Scottish mother, is six years older than Salandra. Born at Florence on the 11th March, 1847, he studied law at Pisa and entered the Diplomatic Service for some years, but left it to devote himself to economic studies and to a political career.

"As Minister of the Treasury in the Crispi Cabinet of 1893, he laid the foundations of the financial and economic prosperity of Italy. * * * When, in 1906 and again in 1910, he became Prime Minister, his Administrations were speedily overthrown by a combination of political interests which felt themselves menaced by his upright and uncompromising methods. It has often been said of him that he would never give his full measure save in a national emergency. The emergency found him in the office of the Foreign Secretary where his great gifts could be utilised to the best advantage."—*The Times*.

SPENSER-GRAY, SQUAD.-COM. G. A.—The Naval airman who with Lieut. Marix and Lieut. Sippe, carried out the successful raid on the Zeppelin Shed at Dusseldorf and on Cologne Railway Station. Awarded D.S.O.

SPEE, COUNT VON.—In command of the German Cruiser *Scharnhorst* of Chilean fame. Along with others, it was made short work of by Admiral Sturdee.

SPRING-RICE, SIR CECIL ARTHUR.—Succeeded Viscount Bryce as British Ambassador at Washington.

STANLEY, SIR ALBERT HENRY.—Managing-Director of the "*Underground*." Has done useful work as a member of the War Refugees Committee.

STELLA, VICE-ADMIRAL AMERO D'ASTE.—He took over the command of the Second Squadron in the Tripolitaine War from Vice-Admiral Viale, when the latter succeeded Admiral Faravelli.

STEWART, CAPTAIN BERTRAND.—Will be remembered as one of the victims of the German spy mania. Killed in action.

STODDART, REAR-ADMIRAL ARCHIBALD PEILE.—Rear-Admiral in the Home Fleet at Devonport.

STRAUSS, RICHARD.—Even Richard Strauss, composer and conductor, is in war service. The concert, given under the auspices of the Princess August Wilhelm, was a huge financial and artistic event, the programme consisting entirely of Strauss's own works, always a magnet in music-loving Berlin. The climax was reached by Strauss's own fiery reading of the "Heldenleben" symphonic poem, which critics declare was never heard to such superb advantage.—Mr. Frederic William Wile in the *Daily Mail*.

STRAUTZ, GENERAL VON.—Commands the Second German Army Corps in France.

STURDEE, VICE-ADMIRAL SIR FREDERICK CHARLES DOVETON.—Chief of the Naval War Staff. His splendid work in sinking the German Cruisers off the Falkland Isles is well-known.

SUTHERLAND, MILLICENT DUCHESS OF.—The Duchess had an adventurous experience during the bombardment of Namur. With eight Red Cross Nurses she worked at Namur.

SUTHERLAND, THE DUKE OF.—On the outbreak of the war he set on foot an extensive organisation for the equipment of country houses as hospitals and convalescent homes for the wounded soldiers and sailors.

SZOGYENEY-MARICH, COUNT VON.—Austrian Ambassador in Berlin. He is well-known for his princely life at Berlin.

TIBET, THE DALAI LAMA OF.—When the war broke out and the British dominions rushed to serve the Empire, an offer was received of 1,000 soldiers from the Lama.

TIRPITZ, ADMIRAL VON.—Secretary of State for the German Navy. For an account of his life and work, see p. 224, portrait, p. 224. Von Tirpitz's part in the war, says Mr. Wile in the *Daily Mail*, is notorious. It is he who divined and devised pirate warfare by submarine against English commerce and non-combatants.

TRIETSCHKE, HEINRICH VON.—Most popular University Lecturer of Germany of the last century. For a detailed account of his writings and aims, see p. 291, portrait, p. 288.

TSCHVISCHKY UND BOGENDORFF, BARON VON.—The notorious German Ambassador in Vienna. There is no doubt that this man exercised a malevolent influence in Austria's dealings with Servia.

VIALE, ADMIRAL.—Vice-Admiral Leone Viale was appointed to command the Second Squadron during the war with Turkey and succeeded soon after to the chief command of the Fleet. He was in command of the Fleet when reviewed by King Victor Emmanuel in Naples Bay on the 12th November, 1912.

VILLIERS, SIR FRANCIS HYDE.—Appointed British Minister at Brussels in 1911.

VIVIANI, RENE.—French Prime Minister and a great man of letters. See p. 32b, portrait, p. 32c.

WARD, W. DUDLEY, M.P.—One of the many M. P's serving in the Forces. He received a Commission as a Lieutenant-Commander of the Royal *Naval Reserve*.

WARRENDER, VICE-ADMIRAL SIR G. J. S.—Commander of the Second Battle Squadron Home Fleet since 1912. He has specialised in gunnery.

WEDGWOOD, JOSIAH CLEMENT, M.P.—One of the M. P's serving in the Front. He holds the rank of Lieut.-Commander in the Navy. When the war broke out, he went to Belgium in command of armoured motor-cars for scouting. He took part in four engagements.

WELLESLEY, LORD GEORGE.—Fourth son of the Duke of Wellington. He joined the Army Flying Corps on the outbreak of the war. He did a brave deed in 1910, of rescuing a woman who had fallen into a river.

WERMUTH, ADOLF.—Chief Burgomaster of Berlin. He is a keen business man and organiser.

WESTMINSTER, THE DUCHESS OF.—Valuable help was given by the Duchess to the various Relief Funds started in connection with the war. Her Grace organised a base hospital to be sent to the seat of war.

WICKHAM, CAPTAIN T. S., D.S.O.—Of Manchester Regiment. He served as a trooper in the South African War and was four times mentioned in the Despatches. Killed in action.

WILHELM II., KAISER.—Emperor of Germany. For a sketch of his character and aims, see p. 168, portrait, p. 168.

WILSON, ADMIRAL SIR ARTHUR KINJVETT, V.C., O.M.—Appointed Honorary Colonel of the 2nd Brigade in the new Royal Naval Division for land service. Besides being a great strategist, he is the inventor of the double-barrelled torpedo-tube.

WILSON, BRIG.-GEN. HENRY HUGHES.—Sub-Chief of the General Staff in France. His is quite a long record of service in the Army. General Wilson was specially mentioned for his services in the war by Sir John French.

WILSON, DR. WOODROW.—President of the United States of America. For a sketch, see p. 248*d*, portrait, p. 248*e*.

WINCHESTER, THE BISHOP OF.—The Right Reverend Dr. Edward Stuart Talbot, Bishop of Winchester, placed his Episcopal Palace, Farnham Castle, Surrey, at the disposal of the Red Cross Society.

WOLFF, THEODOR.—Editor in Chief of *Berliner Tageblatt*. Though previously known as a moderate and independent writer, he has after the war become one of the most violent Anglo-phobes.

WURTEMBEG, DUKE ALBERT OF.—Heir-presumtive to the throne of Wurtemberg. He is the Commander of one of the main German Armies. He is a widower with a number of young children. He is not very popular in his State.

WURTEMBERG, KING OF.—The king has mainly devoted his attention to the social and economic development of his kingdom. The little kingdom is regarded as a model State in Germany. There are said to be no paupers and no illiterates in the State.

WYNDHAM, CAPT. PERCY.—Acted for some time as A. D. C. to Maj.-Gen. Sir Henry Rawlinson.

YARDE-BULLER, COLONEL THE HON. HENRY.—British Military Attaché in Paris. He was personally thanked for his work by Sir John French.

YASHIRO, ADMIRAL.—Became Japanese Minister of the Navy in April, 1914.

ZEPPELIN, COUNT.—As soon as bombs from German airships are dropped on London, says Frederic William Wile in the *Daily Mail*, Germans have ready for Count Zeppelin a crown of imperishable glory. For a sketch and portrait, see p. 152.

English, French, German, Italian, Greek and Roman Maxims of War, and War Proverbs.

EDITED BY MR. ABDUL HAMID MINHAS.

ENGLISH MAXIMS.

" Ez for the war, I go agin it,—
I mean to say I kind o' du,—
Thet is, I mean thet, bein' in it,
The best way wuz to fight it thru;
Not but wut abstract war is horrid,
I sign to that with all my heart,—
But civlyzation does git farrid
Sometimes upon a powder-cart."

(Lowell.)

—:o:—

" I swear to you, lawful and lawless war,
Are scarcely even akin."

(Tennyson.)

—:o:—

" Sweet is the chase, but battle is sweeter;
More healthful, more joyous, for true men meeter!"

(Aubrey de Vere.)

—:o:—

" One to destroy, is murder by the law,
And Gibbets keep the lifted hand in awe;
To murder thousands take a specious name,
War's glorious art, and gives immortal fame."

(Young.)

—:o:—

" War is honorable
In those who do their native rights maintain;
In those whose swords an iron barrier are
Between the lawless spoiler and the weak;
But is, in those who draw th' offensive blade
For added power or gain, sordid and despicable
As meanest office of the worldly churl."

(J. Baillie.)

—:o:—

" Since the foolish part of mankind will make wars from time to time with each other not having sense enough otherwise to settle their differences, it certainly becomes the wiser part who cannot prevent these wars to alleviate as much as possible the calamities attending them."

(Benj. Franklin.)

—:o:—

" Those successes are more glorious which bring benefit to the world than such ruinous ones as dyed in human blood."

(Glanvill.)

—:o:—

" The necessity of war, which among human actions is the most lawless, hath some kind of affinity with the necessity of law."

(Raleigh.)

—:o:—

" In peace, there's nothing so becomes a man,
As modest stillness and humility:
But when the blast of war blows in our ears,
Then imitate the action of the tiger:
Stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood."

(Shakespeare.)

" Cease to consult, the time for action calls,
War, horrid war, approaches to your walls."

(Pope.)

—:o:—

" War is a terrible trade, but in the cause that is righteous
Sweet is the smell of powder."

(Longfellow.)

—:o:—

" The Commonwealth of Venice in their armoury have this inscription: 'Happy is that city, which in time of peace, thinks of war.'"

(Burton.)

—:o:—

" He who did well in war just earns the right
So begins doing well in peace."

(Browning.)

—:o:—

" War is a fire struck in the Devil's tinder-box."

(Lowell.)

—:o:—

" War is the statesman's game, the priest's delight,
The lawyer's jest, the hired assassin's trade."

(Shelley.)

—:o:—

" War made in earnest makes war to cease,
And vigorous prosecution hastens peace."

(S. Tuke.)

—:o:—

" War seldom enters but where wealth allures."

(Dryden.)

—:o:—

" War, the needy bankrupt's last resort."

(Rowe.)

—:o:—

" War's the rash reaper who thrusts in his sickle before the grain is white."

(W. Scott.)

—:o:—

" Blood is the god of war's rich livery."

(Marlowe.)

—:o:—

" Draw once the sword,
In a strange world 'tis sheathed. When war winds blow,
Kingdoms break up like clouds."

(Alexander-Smith.)

—:o:—

" As if war was a matter of experiment! As if you could take it up or lay it down as an idle frolic! As if the dire goddess that presides over it, with her murderous spear in her hand and her Gorgon at her breast, was a coquette to be flirted with! We ought with reverence to approach that tremendous divinity, that loves courage, but commands counsel. War never leaves where it found a nation. It is never to be entered into without a mature deliberation,—not a deliberation lengthened out into a perplexing indecision, but a deliberation leading to a sure and fixed judgment.

When so taken up, it is not to be abandoned without reason as valid, as fully and as extensively considered. Peace may be made as unadvisedly as war."

(Burke.)

—:o:—

" Victuals and ammunition
And money too, the sinews of war."
(Beaumont & Fletcher.)

—:o:—

" Silence is the soul of war;
Delib'rate counsel must prepare
The mighty work which valour must complete."
(Prior.)

—:o:—

" Let will but set its appetite on war,
And reason promptly will invent offence
And furnish blood with arguments."
(A. Austin.)

—:o:—

" When first under fire an' you're wishful to duck
Don't look nor take 'eed at the man that is struck,
Be thankful you're livin', and trust to your luck,
And march to the front like a soldier."
(R. Kippling.)

—:o:—

" Mad wars destroy in one year the works of many years of peace."

(Benj. Franklin.)

—:o:—

" My thoughts are turned on peace:
Already have our quarrels fill'd the world
With widows and with orphans."
(Addison.)

—:o:—

" The art of war, which I take to be the highest perfection of human knowledge."

(De Foe.)

—:o:—

" My voice is still for war.
Gods! can the English Ministers still debate
Which of the two to choose, slavery or death?"
(With Apologies to Addison.)

—:o:—

FRENCH MAXIMS.

" In war three-fourths are the matters of moral ascendency; the balance of the actual forces engaged only counts for the remaining fourth."

(Napoleon.)

—:o:—

" War entered upon without good store of money hath but a breath of vigour. The sinews of battle are the treasure chests."

(Rabelais.)

—:o:—

" He brews a great folly, who stirs up war without reasons."

(Anon.)

—:o:—

" Peace is the daughter of war."

(Voltaire.)

—:o:—

" Costly is time in love as well as in war."

(La Fontaine.)

" According to the true art of War, we should never bring the enemy to the pitch of despair, because such circumstances do but multiply his strength and revive his courage which was before weakened and dejected."

(Rabelais.)

—:o:—

" The fate of a battle is the result of a moment,—of a thought: the hostile forces advance with various combinations, they attack each other and fight for a certain time; the critical moment arrives, a mental flash decides, and the least reserve accomplishes the object."

(Napoleon I.)

—:o:—

" To arms! to arms! ye brave!
Th' avenging sword unsheathe,
March on! march on! all hearts resolved
On victory or death."
(J. R. De Lisle.)

—:o:—

" In war God is generally for big squadrons against the little ones."

(B. Rabulin.)

—:o:—

GERMAN MAXIMS.

" Everlasting peace is a dream, there is not one more beautiful, and war is a factor in God's plan of the world . . . . ; without war the world would sink into materialism."

(V. Moltke to Prof. Dr. Bluntschli.)

—:o:—

" The war maintains the war."

(Schiller.)

—:o:—

" Who peace and unity
Scorneth for War's array,
With impunity
Slays his hope for a better day."
('Goethe' versified by Taylor.)

" War is terrible as the plagues of Heaven, still it is good and is a gift as they are."

(Schiller.)

—:o:—

" A peace that has the prospect of being disturbed every day and week has not the value of a peace. A war is often less harmful to the public welfare than such a peace."

(Bismarck.)

—:o:—

" The combat deepens, O'ye brave,
Who rush to glory or the grave!
Wave Munich! all thy banners wave,
And charge with all thy chivalry."
(Title of Poems " Hohenlinden.")

—:o:—

" But war for me! my spirits treasure,
Its stern delight, and wilder pleasure:
I love the peril and the pain,
And travel in the surge of Fortune's boisterous main!"
('Schiller' versified by Lodge.)

—:o:—

" Peace is always the final aim of war."

(Wieland.)

"Nachgeben stillt allen Krieg."

(Proverb.)

—:o:—

"War hath no pity."

(Schiller.)

—:o:—

ITALIAN MAXIMS.

"And quite as incorrect is the commonly received opinion that money is the sinews of war."

(Machiavelli.)

—:o:—

"What wonder that a certain person being asked what were the things necessary for war, should reply that there were three: to wit, money, money and money."

(Montecuccoli.)

—:o:—

"Every state, as has been said, should desire peace, but with all that in her military preparations she should show herself warlike, for peace unarmed is a feeble thing."

(Lottini.)

—:o:—

"Although it is detestable in every thing to use fraud, nevertheless in the conduct of war it is admirable and praiseworthy, and he is commended who overcomes the foe by stratagem, equally with him who overcomes by force."

(Machiavelli.)

—:o:—

"They who within the foeman's boundaries
Wage war, must ever be of courage high,
But cautious aye and timid in their act."

('Trissino', translator unknown.)

—:o:—

"Fortune being the mistress of all human affairs, and especially of war."

(Poggio.)

—:o:—

"Alike in war and in love, secrecy, courage and fidelity are wanted, the dangers are equal, and the end is generally similar. The soldier dies in a ditch while the lover in despair."

(Machiavelli.)

—:o:—

SPANISH MAXIMS.

"Good is war and better still is victory, but best of all is peace, which thanks to you, does reign."

(G. L. Hidalgo.)

—:o:—

"In war it is lawful and customary to make use of ruses and stratagems to overcome the foe."

(Cervantes.)

—:o:—

"The implements of war are the sinews of peace."

(J. Setanti.)

—:o:—

"Final anxiety of war is not usually to conquer, for to follow up the victory is not free from difficulty."

(A. de Sohs.)

—:o:—

"Hunting is the image of war."

(Calderon.)

GREEK MAXIMS OF WAR.

"Wars spring from unseen and often from very small causes."

(Thucydides.)

—:o:—

"In the time of peace a farmer can feed himself by a harvest on stony grounds; in war a fertile plain refuses to give him anything."

(Menander.)

—:o:—

"War is a matter not so much of arms as of expenditure, through which arms may be made of service."

(Thucydides.)

—:o:—

"War cannot be made by allotting funds as one allots rations."

(Archidamus.)

—:o:—

"For none throughout the day till set of sun, fasting from food, may bear the toils of war."

(Lord Derby's translation.) Homer.

—:o:—

"In war it is not permitted to make two mistakes."

(Lamachus.)

—:o:—

"In war, prudence is our strongest rampart, because it can neither be overthrown nor betrayed."

(Antisthenes.)

—:o:—

"As has been often said, the goal of war is peace."

(Aristotle.)

—:o:—

"Riches are the sinews of war."

(Borysthenes.)

—:o:—

"In peace I provide enjoyment, in war become the sinews of action."

(Crantor.)

—:o:—

"After the war alliance."

(Periander.)

—:o:—

ROMAN MAXIMS OF WAR.

"War, dreadful war."

(Virgil.)

—:o:—

"We should so enter upon war as to show that our only desire is PEACE."

(Cicero.)

—:o:—

"I war not with captives and women; he whom my hate pursues must carry arms."

(Q. Curtius.)

—:o:—

"War is delightful to those who have had no experience of it."

(Erasmus.)

"The fortune of war stands ever on the verge."
(Seneca.)

—:o:—

"Fortune offers opportunities in the war."
(Cæsar.)

—:o:—

"The dread of war is worst than war itself."
(Seneca.)

—:o:—

"The wise wage war for the sake of peace, and endure toil in the hope of leisure."
(Sallust.)

—:o:—

"If we desire to enjoy peace we must first wage war, if we shrink from war, we shall never enjoy peace."
(Cicero.)

—:o:—

"The laws hold good for peace, as for war."
(Livy.)

—:o:—

"Gold and power the chief causes of war."
(Tacitus.)

—:o:—

"War, the monster of many heads."
(Pliny the Younger.)

—:o:—

"In war nothing is more unjust than that all concerned claim its successes for themselves and throw on others the blame of reverses."
(Tacitus.)

—:o:—

"Necessity knows no law, especially in war, where we are really permitted to select our opportunity."
(Q. Curtius.)

—:o:—

"Money, the sinews of war."
(Cicero.)

—:o:—

"War upsets our calculations more than anywhere."
(Livy.)

—:o:—

"It is always easy enough to take up arms, but very difficult to lay them down; the commencement and the termination of war are not necessarily in the same hands, even a coward may begin, but the end comes only when the victors are willing."
(Sallust.)

—:o:—

"Wars are to be undertaken in order that it may be possible to live in peace without molestation."
(Cicero.)

—:o:—

"War should be neither feared nor provoked."
(Pliny the Younger.)

—:o:—

"The results of war are uncertain."
(Cicero.)

—:o:—

"Wars are just to those to whom they are necessary."
(Livy.)

—:o:—

"Wars are wont to atone for people's luxuriousness."
(Vulgate.)

—:o:—

"Endless money forms the sinews of war."
(Cicero.)

"Nothing ought to be despised in war."
(C. Nepos.)

—:o:—

"There is no safety in war, we all entreat thee for peace."
(Virgil.)

"After the shout of war, the darts begin to fly."
(Anon.)

—:o:—

PROVERBS.

"Clothe thee in war, arm thee in peace."
(Outlandish proverb.)

—:o:—

"Giving way stops all war."
(German proverb.)

—:o:—

"He that keeps his own makes war."
(Outlandish proverb.)

—:o:—

"If there were no fools there would be no war."
(English proverb.)

—:o:—

"If you wish for peace prepare for war."
(Latin proverb.)

—:o:—

"Who carries sword, carries peace."
(French proverb.)

—:o:—

"Of mortal war you can make peace well."
(French proverb.)

—:o:—

"One sword keeps another in the shield."
(Italian proverb.)

—:o:—

"The fear of war is worse than war itself."
(English proverb.)

—:o:—

"The war is not done as long as the enemy lives."
(Outlandish proverb.)

—:o:—

"War, hunting, and law, are as full of trouble as of pleasure."
(English proverb.)

—:o:—

"War and physic are governed by the eye."
(Old proverb.)

—:o:—

"War brings scars."
(English proverb.)

—:o:—

"War is death's feast."
(English proverb.)

—:o:—

"War makes thieves and peace hangs them."
(English, French and Italian proverb.)

—:o:—

"When war begins, then hell opens."
(English proverb.)

—:o:—

"War begun, hell let loose."
(Italian proverb.)

—:o:—

"When war comes, the devil enlarges hell."
(English proverb.)

—:o:—

"Who preacheth war is the devil's chaplain."
(English proverb.)

A REVIEW OF THE WAR

BY PROF. K. C. MACARTNEY, M.A.

NOW that the great European War which has threatened the world for a generation has actually been going on for a year, it is possible to pause and take stock of events, though even now we hardly dare draw conclusions from what has already happened. The seeds of this conflict lie in the yielding of Prince Bismarck to Prussian military opinion, when his own statesmanship told him that it was not wise to annex French territory. From that time to the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908, Prussia has been building up her resources, and bolstering up the Austro-Hungarian Empire, till she was ready. The tragedy of Sarajevo on 28th June was not the cause of this war, it was the opportunity for it, the true cause was the Prussian lust for domination and territorial aggression.

It has so happened that Prussianized Germany finds herself confronted by a coalition of the greatest magnitude. Russia, France, Great Britain and Japan have been drawn into the struggle, and the United States of America, while remaining neutral, have shown clearly that their sympathies are with the Allies. Had the cause of the war been the murder of an Austrian Prince, this could not have been the case. The cause of the war is the attempt to crush three small but heroic states, Servia, Montenegro and Belgium.

We will first take the Servian incident and the plan of campaign of the Austro-German General Staff. At the time of the annexations of 1908, Austria ceded to Turkey a small strip of territory, the Sanjak of Novi Bazar. This was done simply to cut off Servia from Montenegro and the sea, and render her economically absolutely dependent upon Austria. The Balkan War saw the annexation of this territory by the two small states, thus making it into a barrier against Austrian expansion southward. Here is the true *casus belli* for Austria. On 24th July, nearly a month after the murder of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand the Austrian ultimatum, demanding amongst other things that Servia should allow Austrian officials to take part in the trial of Servian officers by the Servian Government, reached Belgrade. This demand could not be accepted, and when Servia refused, Austria declared war on 28th July. Her Government were certain of German support against Russia, and France had just declared that she was unprepared for war, England was supposed to be involved in a tremendous domestic struggle. Such action was a direct challenge to Russia with whom Austria was still carrying on diplomatic conversations. These ceased on 30th, and on 31st Russia invaded Austrian territory blowing up a railway bridge. On 1st August, Germany after much tortuous diplomacy declared war on Russia's refusal to demobilise.

On the Western Frontier Germany did not break off relations with France until 3rd August, the reason given being the French mobilization ordered for 1st August. On 2nd August the German military authorities seized the railway system of the small Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, and demanded an unmolested passage through Belgium. This was refused, and the King of the Belgians made a personal appeal to the King on 3rd August to come to his assistance. The British Government replied by dispatching an ultimatum to Berlin demanding respect for Belgian neutrality. Before this reached Berlin on 4th August, Belgian neutrality was already violated, thus producing a state of war between Great Britain and Germany. Germany's foreign policy has not been conspicuously sane during the last twenty years, but she made two criminal blunders at the beginning of this war, she attacked France without a serious pretext, and Belgium without a pretext at all. The result was to rivet England to the side of France, which Germany certainly hoped to prevent, and on that very account she drove Italy out of the Triple Alliance, for it would be mere suicide for Italy to join in a war against England, whilst England commands the sea.

Being launched upon her great war, Germany's plan was to hold back the Russians and Servians with the help of Austria, while she dealt with France. Her first object was Paris. This plan was spoilt by the British declaration of war, that is the true secret of the aimlessness of the

present German campaign, Paris, Antwerp, Calais, can none of them be decisive unless England is beaten as well as France. But we must now try to trace the course of the campaign in its various theatres, Belgium, France, East Prussia and Poland, Galicia and Southern Austria, and the wider conflict overseas.

It must be borne in mind that the original plan of campaign did not contemplate the annexation or occupation of Belgium at the earliest stage of the war. It was to be a rush to Paris, not to Antwerp. But the refusal of Belgium to become the cat's paw of Germany altered all that. Between 5th and 19th August the German advance was checked by the forts of Liege and Namur, but the forcing of the river Meuse at other points made the resistance of Liege of small military importance after the first seven days. Those seven days, however, very possibly changed the fortune of the whole Western campaign. In the first place they gave time for the British troops to be mobilized and despatched to France, and in the second place they forced the Germans to divert a part of their army for the conquest and occupation of Belgium. Up till 22nd August the brunt of the fighting fell upon the small Belgian Army. The plan of the Allies was to gain time for the English force to come up.

The Expeditionary Force, some 80,000 strong, was sent across the Channel between 9th and 14th August, they effected a junction with the French at Charleroi and Mons on 23rd and this ended the first stage of manœuvring for position. The fighting in Northern Belgium had been necessary in order to clear the country behind the German advance, otherwise it was unimportant. The Belgians transferred the Government from Brussels to Antwerp on 18th August as it was decided not to defend the capital. Had Brussels been defended, it would have meant the certain destruction of one of the most beautiful cities of the world without any corresponding military advantage. The city was occupied without resistance on 20th August by General von Armin's force. The occupation was attended by a gross breach of international law, for Brussels was fined £8,500,000 presumably for not resisting the invaders. The law on the subject is that levies may not be exacted except for the immediate wants of the force making the levy, or as a punishment for hostile acts by non-combatants. On 22nd August the Germans defeated the Belgian Field Army at Tirlemont and Aerschot by sheer weight of numbers, driving them back upon Antwerp, thus safeguarding their communications for the big battle against the French and English.

A word may here be said as to the treatment of the Belgians by the German army. It has long been a cardinal doctrine of the German military writers that the only way to render the position of an invading army secure is to strike terror into the inhabitants. It is, therefore, quite beside the point to look for any other reasons for the acts which have been committed in Belgium, Louvain, Malines, Diest, Dinant, strike the imagination by their lurid horror, but the real work has been done in nameless hamlets, by the mutilation, rape and murder of humble peasants. The German General's ambition is to be a name with which future generations will terrify into silence fractious children, it is to his professional interest to gain a reputation for unheard of cruelty. These atrocities are not sporadic, but as much a part of the plan of campaign as the advance on Paris.

As we have already seen the French and English forces effected a junction on Belgian soil on 23rd August. Their right rested on Namur and Givet, their left, composed of the English, on Mons. Against this position the Germans moved to the attack on 24th in great force. When the complete history of this war is written the chapter dealing with the period from 24th August to 2nd September will form one of the most thrilling incidents of the 1914 campaign. Throughout 24th and 25th the British Force held its ground against an enemy nearly three times as numerous. It was not the fault of either the French or the English that General Joffre was compelled to retire on the second day, for Namur had been carried by assault. The weakness of the allied position lay in the fact that their right was at once commanded and protected by Namur. The fall of the fortress necessitated an immediate retirement to prevent the Germans turning their right flank.

At Mons the very existence of the British Expeditionary Force was imperilled by the sudden appearance of enormous reinforcements on the line opposed to them. This with the enforced retirement of the French threatened to isolate them, and a retreat had to be carried out in the face of an attack which was proceeding with full vigour. The credit for the carrying out of such a movement was ascribed by Sir John French to the skill and courage of Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien, who extricated the army with complete success

and astonishingly small loss. On the following day the retreat was continued, this time covered by General Haig's Corps. Though very hard pressed by the elated Germans, the British Force was able to drive off the German attacks and keep in close touch with the French armies.

On 28th August the army finally shook off the pursuing Germans, and took up a position on the line from Noyon to La Fère along the valley of the Somme. For strategic reasons the retreat was continued next day, the English army falling back on the line Compiegne-Soissons. On 3rd September the English again fell back behind the Marne, at this time it was thought that it might be necessary to fall back on the Seine, but as it turned out this was not necessary. On 5th September the retreat ended. After 28th August it ceased to be a retreat in anything but name, it had become a manœuvring for position. General Joffre's plan was apparently to draw the Germans into France as far as possible and then attack them on all sides, forcing them to retreat precipitately in order to save their communications. During the retreat there were many actions worthy of the highest tradition of the British army, such as the great fights at Cambrai and Compiegne. When the veil has been lifted from the events of the campaign, we shall find that these are only two among many such feats of arms.

The battle of the Marne began on 6th September and ended in the retreat of the Germans on 10th. According to many accounts this retreat was conducted in considerable disorder, in some cases amounting to a rout, but that may be easily an exaggerated view. Up to the present the Germans show no signs of such demoralization as is implied in these descriptions. The object of this battle was first to force the passage of the Marne on the left front of the French line, then to cross the Ourcq, and so to attack the enemy on his right flank. The actual turning movement was performed by the French, with the English in strong support, it was eventually completely successful. It was the pressure on his right flank which forced the enemy to retreat so hastily in order to avoid being cut off from his prepared defensive position on the Aisne.

This position was reached by the Allies on 12th September, and though the passage of the river was forced almost immediately, further progress has had to be recorded in yards from day to day. On all sides the operations on the Aisne are compared with those of a siege. The soldiers on both sides dig themselves into trenches where they remain until their reliefs come up to replace them. Most of the actual fighting by day is done by the heavy guns. At night trenches are occasionally taken and retaken with the bayonet. This process is sometimes varied by the sapping and blowing up of a trench. In many parts of the position the two lines of trenches are so close together as to make the use of hand grenades and bombs effective.

Along the front of the Aisne itself both sides recognise a virtual stalemate, but on both flanks the Allies have been slowly but steadily advancing. The Germans also, recognising that their scheme for an advance on Paris is not at present practicable, have again become active in Belgium, to which point the chief interest of the campaign shifted soon after the nature of the fighting on the Aisne became apparent.

This closes the second stage of the Western campaign. Germany had experienced more difficulty than was anticipated in her march through Belgium. This prevented her initial success at Namur becoming a sweeping victory, for it gave time to the Allies to collect their forces. On 2nd September the advance on Paris suddenly was diverted into a movement in a south-easterly direction, from that moment the French campaign was doomed. What caused the sudden change of plan is not yet certain, but its result has spelt defeat.

After the middle of September, the German plan of campaign began to be dictated by the action of the Allies. In the Eastern theatre the Russian advance began to gather way, while in the West a movement was developing which threatened to turn the German position on the Aisne on the extreme right. The fighting was hottest around the French towns of Peronne, Roye and Albert. Before September was over it became known to the Allies that the German Headquarters confessed that they could not hold their positions against the French and English reinforcements which were pouring in on them. At the end of the month the whole German position was in grave danger of being outflanked, it was therefore quite clear that they must extend their line, if possible to the Sea, in order to make these attempts impossible. The advance of Russia made it difficult to spare troops, so the army of occupation in Belgium was made use of to fill in the gap between the Germans and the coast. We may well imagine that in the last week of September the German Head-

quarters must have bitterly regretted that discipline had been sapped and morale lowered in this force by the excesses which had been permitted and sometimes even commanded. To add to their difficulties, Antwerp and the coast were still held by the Belgians, it was absolutely necessary to capture these, before the more important advance could be made, in this way Antwerp and Ostend blocked the road to Calais.

On September 30th the Antwerp forts were bombarded at long range. Two days later the attack was renewed with vigour. The Belgian Army fought desperately to prevent the enemy from crossing the Scheldt and for a time they succeeded, but it was evident that they could not hold out long enough for the Allies to reach a position from which they might defeat the real German objective to which the capture of Antwerp was only a preliminary. It was felt to be of such vital importance that Antwerp should hold out for a week at least, that the British Government despatched a force of bluejackets and marines on 3rd October in order to help in the defence. This move has been much criticised, on the ground that the men employed had not sufficient training for the kind of work they were expected to perform, but Lord Kitchener has given the one possible answer to such objections, that they were able to gain sufficient time for the Belgians to complete their preparations for the evacuation of the city, and subsequently they afforded real assistance to the Belgian army in holding back the Germans until Sir John French's force could be brought up. On 7th October the Belgian Government was removed to Ostend, and the bombardment of the city began. On this occasion, the Germans proceeded along the lines laid down by international law for civilized warfare, they gave notice of the time at which the bombardment would begin, and they seem to have been at some pains not to destroy the treasures of Antwerp; it is hardly an exaggeration to say that Antwerp has only two rivals in the world as a storehouse of priceless treasures of all kinds, Rome and London. After the forts had been demolished or avoided, the fate of the city was sealed. The troops withdrew on 9th, and next day the German Army took possession, without violence and apparently even without a grotesque parade. There is grim sarcasm in the fact that Reuter's correspondent thought it worth while to telegraph to the civilized world that German soldiers were treating the inhabitants with consideration and even saluting them in the streets. Even the Germans were not too jubilant over their prize, for all that was of most value had slipped away. Antwerp was fined £20,000,000 *pro formâ*, but the vast majority of the inhabitants had fled, and could not be persuaded by Prussian cajolery to return, even the German papers admitted that this was an awkward sidelight upon their humanitarian methods.

On 13th the Germans again began their advance, occupying Ghent. The same day it was decided to evacuate Ostend, and the Belgian Government was removed to France, and established at Havre on 14th. Next day the Germans occupied Bruges and Ostend, thus reaching the sea. They should undoubtedly have rested, for the moment, content with this, but those in authority were determined upon reaching Calais. The first attempt was made on this date, by a small force, which was ignominiously defeated before it reached Dunkerque by French Territorial troops, and forced back over the Belgian frontier. There can be little doubt that this raid was not a very serious affair, and was undertaken for spectacular effect only. For from the date of the occupation of Ostend the Belgian Army took up its position on the Yser Canal and held the line from Nieuport to Dixmude. Here they held on until the British forces could be brought to their aid—General Rawlinson with one division held back overwhelming odds for four days, the fleet pounded the German trenches to such good purpose as to make them absolutely untenable within range of the naval guns. The English came up about 24th. They had been transferred from the Aisne without the knowledge of the Germans, and their arrival effectually checked the German advance. For a few days the Germans held a footing on the south bank of the Yser, but that was rendered untenable by the piercing of the Yser dykes, and by 30th October they had retired to the northern bank.

Evidently the German plan of an advance along the coast was abandoned at the end of October, for the brunt of the fighting during the first ten days of November was borne by the British troops round Ypres. It is true that the Germans gained Dixmude on 10th November, but next day on 11th the British troops had the honour of meeting and defeating the Prussian Guards and another glorious victory has been added to the long list of great achievements by the British Army. This German Corps is formed

MAP OF BELGIUM: THE VALLEY OF THE SAMBRE.

A BELGIAN DOG DRAWING CART.

THE RUTHANIAN CHURCH, LEMBERG.

DESCENT FROM THE CROSS.

THE HOTEL DE VILLE, LOUVAIN.

THE CLOCK TOWER OF MALINES.

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MAP OF THE EASTERN THEATRE.

by free enlistment, like the whole British Army, every member of it is a professional soldier, and it represents the greatest perfection which the German military system can produce. This is why its discomfiture has caused so much rejoicing. If the story is correct, that at one critical moment in the fight only a rugged line formed by regimental cooks and other non-combatants stood between the Germans and complete success, and that these held the attack till reserves could be brought up, it will add another instance to those already well known of the romantic luck of the British Army. Till the end of the winter this engagement has been decisive. No further attempt at a serious advance has since been made by the Germans. The pressure on the East became severe and on 30th November it was reported that four Army Corps had been withdrawn from Belgium to Poland.

After the battle of Ypres it was evidently felt that the Germans had exhausted for a moment their power of attack. During the lull which followed, Lord Roberts visited the Indian troops in Flanders, where he caught a chill and succumbed to pneumonia which developed from it. There is no need here to say anything in praise of this great soldier and kindly gentleman. His long life is very largely the history of the building up and consolidating of the Indian Empire. From the time when he became Commander-in-Chief in India, he stood before the nation as the incarnation of the spirit of the Army. After the South African War he became the most beloved and trusted of the King's subjects. What his inspiration has meant to the present generation will only be realized a long time hence when we know how many men have offered to enlist in 'Lord Kitchener's Army.'

Besides Lord Roberts, His Majesty the King Emperor visited the armies in the Field during the first week of December. His ancestor, King George II. was the last King of England to be in the Field with his Army. The King's activities were innumerable, and the effect of his visit has been most inspiring, but the note of regret in his message to his army after his visit was over, is one of the most striking incidents in a unique episode. Only the responsibilities of his great office, and the most compelling interests of his Empire, have prevented the King from sharing the hardships and dangers of his soldiers throughout the campaign.

On or about 8th December the Allies began an advance, profiting by the weakening of the German line in front of them. The removal of the German wounded from Bruges and the attempt to levy a war indemnity of £42,000,000, upon Belgium, both pointed to a feeling of insecurity among the German authorities. The Allies pushed along the coast, aided to some extent by the guns of the fleet, and at the same time advanced north-eastward from Ypres.

This advance, however, did not extend as far as was at first hoped. The wintry weather and the marshy ground contributed as much as the German resistance to check it. From the beginning of the year until the end of February no great advance was possible, and the operations assumed the character of siege warfare, fierce local struggles for positions of local importance, trench fighting through rain and wind and snow, the most trying of all warlike operations. On the whole, the general effect of the operations from the Sea to Alsace was to show a marked superiority on the side of the Allies, the advance being particularly marked in north-eastern France and in Lorraine.

With the coming of March, better weather conditions made it possible to attempt operations of a larger scale. The great event of this month was the three days' battle of Neuve Chapelle, lasting from 17th to 19th March. In this battle 60,000 British and Indian troops were engaged in an attempt to force back the German line, and, if possible, to open up the way for a general advance.

The chief features of the battle were, in the first place, that it showed how carefully the plans of the Allies in the East and West were co-ordinated, for one of Sir John French's reasons for making his attack at that moment was to relieve the pressure against Russia. It also gave an unanswerable proof of the fighting power of the British forces after their arduous winter campaign. But the most important result of the battle arose from its partial success. The German line was bent back, but it was not broken. This was attributable to the fact that there was not enough ammunition for the guns, although in this one battle more ammunition was expended than in the whole of the South African War. Neuve Chapelle proved one other thing of great importance, that with proper artillery preparation, an attacking force need not suffer heavier casualties than a defending force. Though the British casualties were heavy, they were not so great as the German.

We have heard much of the gallantry of the troops engaged in this battle, and it is well to be reminded at every stage, that it requires exceptional courage to attack a fortified position in modern war. What adds to the feeling of pride throughout the whole Empire at the feats performed by our troops, is that they had such a long time of waiting doing comparatively little beforehand. The heavy casualties were largely due to a portion of the attacking force being held up by wire-entanglements in front of German trenches, which the artillery had not been able to destroy completely, owing to lack of ammunition.

In April, the Germans gained a temporary success by the use of poisonous gas north of Ypres and in the district of Champagne, they also drove back the English line east of Ypres. To the north of Ypres near the village of Saint Julien, the Canadian troops especially distinguished themselves by their gallantry and discipline. It is scarcely to the point to waste words in pointing out the peculiar brutality of this German breach of the rules of civilized warfare. It has since been found necessary for the Allies to protect their own soldiers by recourse to gas by way of reprisals but this course has been forced upon them by Germany's action alone.

During May the Allies have been engaged in redressing the balance which had been upset by the German recourse to gas as an offensive weapon. Their object had been to force their way past Ypres by this means. This attempt has failed utterly, and the British have pushed forward north of La Bassee, while the French are advancing from the south. The object of this advance is to capture Lille and the railway system which it commands, and so to break through the German line. It is almost certain that before the Allies can drive back the Germans they will have to smash their line at several points.

The Western campaign is by no means over, we cannot even be certain of avoiding serious reverses, but up to the present moment we have been fortunate. The new year may easily see important developments, but it will probably be spring before we can hope for any decisive change in the present situation. Then we shall need many thousands of men to roll back the tide of invasion beyond the Rhine. Germany will probably have many more recruits ready by then, and both sides will be prepared to make another stupendous effort. If we win then, the war is won, though it may take years to finish, if we lose, we shall have a war before us as long as the Napoleonic War, but in the end we shall win, because we cannot stop fighting until we have won; Germany can afford to lose, for Germany is fighting for Power, the Allies for Existence.

When we turn from the Western to the Eastern Theatre of the great war, we are confronted with difficulties which did not hamper us in reviewing the first part of our subject. The educated subject of the British Empire has considerable knowledge of the geography of Western Europe, but as we go eastward from Berlin this previous knowledge becomes hazier, till after we have crossed the Russian border our knowledge has become almost entirely historical. This makes it very difficult for us to understand the Eastern plan of campaign without constantly referring to the map.

By 1st August Russia was at war with Germany and Austria-Hungary, though the formal declaration of war could not be made until a few days later, as this can only be done within the Kremlin Palace in Moscow. Russia needed three weeks to complete her mobilization, owing to the vastness of her territory and the numbers of her Army. Owing to the immense enthusiasm for the War in Russia, she was ready by 18th August, but before this date advanced troops had moved into Austrian territory along the valley of the Styr.

The Russian plan of campaign needs some elucidation, as it was not made with a single eye to Russian interests, but with a view to assisting the campaigns in the West and South. The traditional Russian strategy consists in drawing the enemy into Russia and away from his base, and then at the same time threatening his communications and attacking him in front. The Russian soldier is never more formidable than when in retreat, because Russian soldiers do not suffer from panic. The Grand-Duke Nicholas, however, saw that the immediate necessity of the situation was to save Servia by the invasion of Austria-Hungary and to help France and England, it was too late to help Belgium by the invasion of Germany. A glance at the map will show that West Prussia and Silesia are more accessible from the West than the East, while East Prussia has Russian territory on two sides. In the same way on the Austrian frontier the invasion of Galicia is really of small importance until the line of the Carpathians is reached, so that in order to help Servia, Russia must push on

into Hungary. While Russia was thus compelled, for the sake of her friends, to attack fiercely on the northern and southern frontiers of Poland, it was essential, for political reasons, to defend Warsaw at all costs. Thus Russia had four distinct objectives at the beginning of the War: the invasion of East Prussia, the defence of Warsaw from the West, the conquest of Galicia, and the invasion of Hungary. The importance of these various objects was decided not by what happened on the Russian battlefields, but by the events in other parts of Europe. For example, should Italy join the allied nations, the invasion of Hungary by Russia would cease to be of any great military value, while the continued success of the Allies in the West has rendered the East Prussian campaign of small importance. When the time arrives for the Russian advance it will probably come through Silesia, this makes the defence of Poland doubly important and the conquest of Galicia essential. In the meantime all that can be said to be of paramount military importance is to prevent the enemy from ever getting very far into Russia without ensuring that such an advance will culminate in a severe defeat.

That these are the general lines of the Russian strategy can be seen from a survey of events up to the present, so far as they are known. To begin with East Prussia. On 20th August the Russians occupied Gumbinnen on the eastern frontier, by 22nd their line extended south to Lyck, on 24th Johannisberg was occupied, and on the same day Soldau, on the southern frontier. It is possible that this marked the moving up of more troops from Poland. By 27th the Russian line seems to have stretched as far as Neidenberg, and the next day Tilsit is reported to have been occupied, probably from the direction of Gumbinnen, and the Russians entered Allenstein. At this point the investment of Koenigsburg seemed a possibility, but the advance was far too rapid to be permanently maintained. It is quite possible that the Russians finding themselves able to overcome all opposition yet encountered, may have formed the project of pushing on towards Berlin. If so, their hopes were rudely dashed to earth near Gradenz, where the siege guns of Thorn effectually barred further progress, and forced them to retreat. By 14th September the Russians had retired eastward into their own territory and checked the German advance at the Niemen about 28th of the month. It is instructive to note that the Russian advance occupied thirteen days, while it took the Germans twenty-six days to reach the Niemen. It was reported that twenty-two Army Corps were engaged in forcing back the Russians. Russia had accomplished her main purpose of relieving the pressure in the West, but the traditional climax of a Russian retreat had yet to be reached. Between 29th September and 4th October the Russians slowly forced back the enemy, on that day occurred the great battle at Augustovo. We have only received brief accounts but it is clear that a very large German force was ambuscaded and apparently blown to pieces, so that this invasion of Russia ended like most others have done. On 5th East Prussia was again invaded, apparently from the south, the objective being Allenstein, on 10th Lyck was re-occupied. From this point there is considerable obscurity as to what has happened in East Prussia; probably the operations were suspended for a time owing to the German advance in Poland. Though successful fighting in this region was occasionally reported during the interval, it was not until 14th November that the re-capture of Johannisberg was reported. The day before this, there was a mysterious reference to an advance on the Masurian Lakes, which was again mentioned on 15th. This was probably another attempt to divert German attention from the advance in Poland. Further advance in East Prussia was announced on 20th November, but after that no further references appeared on the subject. At this time the fighting in Poland was reaching a critical stage, and in consequence the Russian line was considerably shortened, and probably troops were withdrawn from East Prussia. On 16th December fighting was reported around Mlawa on the southern border of East Prussia, which resulted by 21st in forcing back the Germans to the line Neidenburg-Lannenberg. The apparently indecisive character of the fighting in this region arises from causes which moved Russia to undertake it. It has fulfilled its purpose, and it is the Allies in the West who have reaped benefit from it.

Turning to Poland we have a complete example of the way in which Russia defeats her enemies. The invasion of Poland was part of the original German plan, but that plan was thrown out of gear by events in the West, and also by the rapid advance of Russia in East Prussia. Paris should have fallen before the advance on Warsaw began, but by 24th September the invasion of Poland became necessary to relieve the strain on

Austria, and to take advantage of the Russian retreat further north. Progress was slow, by 28th only eighteen miles of territory had been crossed, but it is evident that this first advance nearly reached its goal, for on 14th October the Russians were defending the line Warsaw-Ivangorod. The fighting went on continuously for ten days, and on 23rd the Germans began to retreat slowly in a south-easterly direction from Warsaw. Lowicz was re-captured on 26th, Lodz on 29th, the Germans were driven from Pelitza on 30th, and the next day from Ivangorod. From 1st to 12th November the Germans continued to retreat until they reached the left bank of the River Warta. Apparently, in spite of reports to the contrary, the Germans were never driven from this position. Apparently also, they resumed the offensive about 17th November, when the Russian defensive line stretched from Plock on the north to the Warta on the south. They evidently gained some considerable success, for from 21st to 23rd they were again on the Vistula, probably pushing northwards. Here their advance was checked, and they again tried to reach Warsaw through Lodz, for which place they fought from 26th November till 9th December. By then, the town had ceased to be of very great importance, and the Russians retired to prepared positions in their rear, without loss. The evacuation of Lodz foiled a turning movement which the Germans had begun in the hope of cutting off part of the army. Between 14th and 16th the Germans carried out a concentration on the Vistula, but were unable to cross the river. From 22nd to 26th they made fruitless attempts to cross the Bzura River, which they have since abandoned.

Up to the present the invasion of Poland has not yielded much spectacular glory to the German arms. Hard fighting, heavy casualties and in the end failure, are not inspiring to contemplate. It is true that Germans may yet struggle through to Warsaw, but no one will be impressed by such a success, for the longer it is delayed, the more certain is it to be the prelude to disaster. Indeed it is hardly likely that the German Army will be able now to break through the Russian defences. Upon the whole the Eastern position is full of promise. The coming of spring has enabled the Russians to put many more men into the field, and they are certainly in a far better position both for defence and attack than they were on 1st August.

Let us now consider the campaign against Austria. Here again there are the two objectives, which form the chief stumbling-block in the way of a clear understanding of the Eastern campaign. The road to Hungary lies first through Galicia, then across or round the Carpathians. Already we have seen that Russia's first attack was through the valley of the Styr, on 9th August. Very little resulted from this movement as Russia was busy watching Germany. Her first real attack was from Lublin southwards against Lemberg. On 3rd September Lemberg fell and on 8th a Governor-General was appointed for Galicia which was formally annexed to Russia. On 15th the Russians forced the passage of the San, and on 22nd entered Jaroslaw. They began the first attack on Przemsyl on 29th, the attack was still proceeding on 13th October, but must have ceased soon afterwards. In the meantime a strong demonstration was being made between 2nd and 6th October in the direction of Cracow, but this was certainly not pushed home. After the failure of the first German attack on Warsaw, Przemsyl was re-invested on 14th November, and on 4th December, a fresh advance against Cracow began. The delays in her advance were caused more by events elsewhere than by Austrian resistance in Galicia.

The first definite indication that Russia was moving a separate force towards Hungary was the occupation of Czernowitz on 15th September. On 26th the Austrians were reported to be retreating hastily, but on 29th the Russians evidently received a severe check which caused them to fall back behind the Carpathians. From 30th September to 4th October they were engaged in heavy fighting, which apparently gave them the command of most of the Passes for a time, but it is clear that full advantage could not be taken of this fact owing to the German pressure in Poland. It is even probable that the Carpathians were not held for long, for when we again hear of advance in the region on 17th November, very little progress has been made. This advance was once more checked until the middle of December, when the combined armies of Austria and Germany evidently succeeded in driving back the Russians into Galicia as far as New Sandec. This advance was certainly checked by 21st December, and by 23rd the Russians were again to the south of the Carpathians.

During the first two weeks of June 1915, the fighting on the Eastern front was similar in character to that on the Western, only the climatic conditions were even more severe. With the coming

of spring Przemsyl fell into the hands of the Russians on the 6th of June. This opened the road to Cracow, while the Carpathian Passes in the hands of Russia made the invasion of Hungary possible. In April it became necessary for Germany to make a supreme effort to save her Ally from an invasion which would compel her to sue for peace. The effort has certainly succeeded for the time, but it seems that Russia has, by the end of May, checked the German advance beyond the Carpathians. In any case, her resources are so immense, that any repulse or reverse can only be temporary.

A clear account of the Servian operations is hardly possible. The original plan of campaign was defensive, a gradual retirement from Belgrade. The unexpected weakness of the Austrian attack in the first weeks of the war caused Servia and Montenegro to adopt the offensive northward against Semlin and north-westward on Sarajevo. The Sarajevo fighting has not yet attained its object, and until the Austrians are driven from the Bosnian Provinces Servia cannot advance. The greatest feat of the Servian arms so far has been the victory in November against the Austrians after they had been compelled to retreat towards the mountains. The victory has probably saved Servia from further invasion.

Something needs to be said here about the outbreak of the war with Turkey on 2nd November. The Turks have leaned rather heavily upon German finance for many years, because it was hard to obtain English or French money except upon terms which involved domestic reforms. The French and English investors were anxious that their dividends should be secured by peace and good government, also they felt very great sympathy for the subject races of the Turkish Empire. On the other hand, Germany would always accept mortgages on provinces or concessions to semi-official companies as sufficient security. These the Sultan Abdul Hamid gave with pleasure, relying on the mutual jealousies of the European Powers to prevent Germany from ever realising her assets in Asia Minor and elsewhere. The Young Turks were inclined at first to reverse this policy, but they soon discovered that they were too deeply committed to Germany to shake her off easily. Gradually they came more and more under German influences, until after the Balkan War they realized that their best chance of revenge was to forget their quarrel with Austria and help her to remove Servia and Montenegro from her path to the Ægean. At the outbreak of the European War Turkey contented herself with affording such friendly protection to the German vessels *Goeben* and *Breslau* as amounted to a breach of neutrality. Various other hostile acts were committed, including the tampering with the loyalty of the Khedive of Egypt and the search and detention of the vessels of the Allies. The culminating act of war was the bombardment of Odessa. Since war has begun the outstanding features of the campaign so far have been the victorious Russian advance in Armenia, the bombardment of the Dardanelles, the annexation of Cyprus to the British Empire, the establishment of a British Protectorate in Egypt, and the very successful expedition from the Persian Gulf up to Basrah at the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates. But far more important than all these, or than anything else which is likely to happen in the campaign against Turkey, is the extraordinary outburst of loyalty which it has occasioned among the Mohammedan subjects of the Empire. Already Germany has had to confess to disappointment at the negligible result of Turkish intervention, which may well become a very serious embarrassment to her in the later stages of the war.

During 1915, the most important operations against Turkey have been connected with the forcing of the Dardanelles, in which, since April, a military force has been co-operating with the Naval Squadrons. The occupation of the Gallipoli Peninsula has not yet been completed, but considerable progress has been made. There can be little doubt that the capture of Constantinople is only a question of time. In the meantime the Turks have been driven back from Egypt, apparently finally, and the fighting in Mesopotamia has almost ceased owing to their retreat. Turkey may be considered to have ceased to count as a belligerent.

The intervention of Japan on the side of the Allies is of a wholly different character. Japan has long since realised that Germany's presence in Eastern Asia constituted a menace to herself. Germany has shamelessly evaded her undertakings to respect Chinese integrity by her 'lease' of Tsingtao. This really constituted for Japan a danger analogous to that which brought on the Russo-Japanese War, or, to take a Western parallel, the danger is not unlike that which would confront England, were Belgium to be annexed to the German Empire.

Japan's task has been, for her own sake and that of China, to drive German ideas from the

Far East. For the sake of England, she undertook the protection of British shipping within her own special sphere of influence. She has now performed both these tasks to the full. Germany attempted to bribe Japan to attack Russia at the beginning of the crisis, and was met, as she deserved, with the demand for the withdrawal of her Fleet from Eastern Waters, and the restoration of Kiao-Chao to China. Such a demand in Germany's present mood was tantamount to a declaration of war. The result of the campaign was a foregone conclusion. Germany has now ceased to influence the Far East through her Naval bases masquerading as trade ports.

When we turn to Africa the result is wholly in our favour. Under Botha's immediate generalship the German South-West Africa has been captured and annexed to our Self-Governing Colony. To the north of their West African Colonies Togoland has already been taken, the French have recaptured the territories ceded after the last Morocco crisis, and general progress is being made elsewhere. The chief difficulty encountered is the vastness of the distances, not the opposition of the Germans. In South-West Africa, the Germans created a diversion by playing upon the sentimental regrets of the older men among the Boers. Only a few of these, mostly men who had lost near relatives during the South African War, followed their old generals. But General Botha, himself the greatest of the Transvaal leaders in that war, has already crushed that half-hearted revolt, and more than justified the confidence reposed in his loyalty and valour.

Of the work of the Navy we need say nothing here, as it will be treated elsewhere, but it has so far fulfilled all that has been demanded of it with such success as to make it fairly certain that it will be sufficient for all that it may be called on to perform in the future.

With the intervention of Italy and the coming of the summer, a new phase of the War has opened. We need not here count up Italy's grievances against Austria-Hungary, it is sufficient to point out that they are strong enough to unite all Italy in the determination to avenge them by war. The immediate effect of Italy's action will be to help Russia by greatly embarrassing Austria. In a few months, it may lead to Austria being compelled to sue for peace on any terms that may be offered her.

But the intervention of Italy may easily lead to the intervention of other States, especially Greece and Roumania. Even Holland has begun to show signs of preparation for possible intervention, evidently not on the side of Germany. This universal feeling of mistrust or hatred of the Teutonic Allies is due only in part to their policy previous to the War. It is the way in which they have conducted the campaign itself, which has caused even their former friends to join their traditional enemies.

After ten months of war we find the allied armies in an improved position in every part of the vast field of war. Great Britain is fast preparing an army of continental dimensions, France has had time to train her reserves and recruits, Russia has been able to mass her troops for the grand attack, Servia is freed from the invasion of the Austrians, Japan has already accomplished the immediate objects of her intervention. The relief of Belgium on the West and of Poland on the East cannot long be delayed. But there remains the work of conquering Germany, which may take years to complete, but which must be thoroughly accomplished. It is too early to talk of 'lessons of the War,' the War is not over. Only two things stand out clearly, the first is a general principle, the second refers only to ourselves. It is abundantly clear that preparation for War cannot of itself ensure victory. The determination of the Allies to kill the idea that Might is the only Right, at whatever cost, has defeated Germany in advance. The crowning fact demonstrated by the War to each subject of the Empire is the strength and reality of its Union.

Note:—Since writing the above, the German effort against Russia has developed with great violence. It appears to have succeeded for the moment in forcing the Grand Duke Nicholas to evacuate Warsaw in order to preserve a straight line. The German success is more apparent than real, and is certain to be of only a few months' duration at the most. They have gained Warsaw; the one clear lesson of the War is that a town or fortress cannot be successfully defended if once it is really invested—Liege, Namur, Antwerp, Maubeuge, Lemberg, Jaroslaw, Przemysl, all tell the same tale. Warsaw has fallen: to prevent the Russian armies from being locked up within its walls, the General has evacuated it. It will fall again; the German army will be driven back across the frontier, and they in their turn will evacuate Warsaw in order not to lose its garrison.

THE NAVY'S TASK IN THE WAR

BY PROF. K. C. MACARTNEY, M.A.

SINCE the days of Great Britain's struggle against Napoleon, and the fight at Navarino, the British Navy has had no considerable opportunity of showing what it can do under war conditions, or of learning much from the experience of others. In the Crimean War the British Navy attacked Russia in the Baltic and the Black Sea, but the Russian Fleet of those days was not able to make an effective resistance, and consequently very little was added to our experience. The American Civil War which marks a definite turning point in land warfare added nothing to naval history except the elucidation of some points of Naval Law. There were naval engagements in the wars between America and Spain, China and Japan, and Greece and Turkey, but they were all subsidiary to the land warfare. The Russo-Japanese War might have added something to our knowledge had not the advantage at sea been so obviously on the side of Japan from the start, and Russia's chief interest been centred on the land. The general result of these campaigns was to strengthen the idea that Sea-Power as a factor in aggressive warfare was only an adjunct to the operations on land.

In England and Germany, however, this view has never received much support, for, to England a supreme Navy is a primary necessity, and Germany saw that world-dominion implied mastery at sea as continuous as mastery on land. It was, therefore, a matter of supreme interest for the history of the Navy, when war broke out in August between these two nations. English Naval writers held that steam and gunnery had only altered the tactics of Naval Warfare, that the strategy remained the same as it has always been, and the German authorities agreed on this point with our own.

There are three objects for which the Navy is built and manned. In the first place, it must coop up or destroy the enemy's fleet; in the second place, it must establish a complete blockade not only of the enemy's coast, but of his whole country; finally, it must keep open the trade routes for commerce with its own territories. These three things are incumbent upon all Navies, and by the successful attainment of them, we judge of a nation's success or failure at sea.

From these general considerations we turn to examine the actual events of the war. Much more has already taken place than one realises until it is collected in the form of an official statement or an article. War began an hour before midnight on 4th August. Within three hours English submarines were reconnoitring the waters of the Bight of Heligoland. The next day some twenty German prizes were brought into ports along the English coast, on the same day H. M. S. *Amphion*, a small cruiser, was sunk by a mine, losing half her crew, after sinking the German vessel *Koenigen Louise*, which was laying mines. In the meantime the Fleet had begun the blockade of Germany, taking up strategical positions in the North Sea and watching the German coast. When the Channel and the North Sea had been cleared of German war-vessels, the transportation of the expeditionary force took place between 9th and 14th August, escorted by British submarines. Then came a period of waiting. The German fleet remained in the Baltic or in harbour, and the main British fleets refused to be drawn from their strategic positions. On 28th August, however, a German cruiser squadron accompanied by torpedo boats issued from the protection of the land forts to reconnoitre. They were decoyed into the open by a small British squadron and then found their retreat cut off. In this fight H.M.S. *Arethusa*, which had only just been commissioned, bore the brunt of the German fire, at one time during the engagement she was attacked by several German vessels. On the arrival of British reinforcements, ships of the battle-cruiser type, the Germans tried to escape. Three of their cruisers, however, and two destroyers were sunk; the rest owed their safety to the foggy weather in which the battle was fought. The result of the battle was most satisfactory. The British Fleet had lost not a single vessel and under a hundred casualties, some of which were incurred while trying to rescue drowning German sailors from the sinking vessels.

This first sea-fight proved that the efficiency

and discipline of the Fleet were as high as it had ever been. It proved also, that German seamanship was not equal to German valour, and the German Government, profiting by the lesson, sent their Fleet into 'winter quarters' behind the guns of their forts. Thus at the end of a month's war, the Fleet had convinced the Germans of its superiority as a fighting machine, it had already stopped all traffic to German ports, and had begun the process of capturing or destroying German ships which were attacking the trade routes.

September was mainly a month of waiting and watching, and because the British Fleet in the North Sea was so strong, it presented a very good target for the new kind of warfare adopted by Germany. The German policy was to reduce the odds against their own fleet by submarine attacks, by sowing mines and by occasional torpedo-boat and light cruiser raids. This, though not a heroic policy, was undoubtedly the right one for them to pursue, for a blue-water battle with the full strength of the English Fleet would be criminal folly, if it were undertaken willingly. During September the luck was with Germany. On 5th the *Pathfinder*, a small cruiser engaged on patrol duty, was sunk by striking a mine in the North Sea, on 22nd three cruisers, the *Cressy*, the *Aboukir*, and the *Hogue*, were torpedoed by submarines. On the same night the *Emden* carried out her sensational bombardment of Madras. Against these losses may be reckoned the sinking of the *Hela* by the British Submarine E9, and what is far more important, the steady closing in of the blockade of Germany. Great Britain was now beginning to look with considerable concern upon the extraordinary increase in imports shown in Holland, Sweden, Norway and Denmark, and was obliged to take measures to protect her own interests, which will be dealt with later. Here we need say only that the measures taken, if not entirely successful, have at least diminished the danger of rendering the blockade abortive.

October saw a considerable recrudescence of activity in the Fleet. The German successes were the sinking of the *Hawke* on 15th and of Submarine E3 on 18th, both in the North Sea. On 31st the *Emden*, by an act of treachery in flying the flag of another nation, which should alone be sufficient to stop the mouths of those who call her commander a "gallant" officer, sank a Russian and a French war-vessel off Penang. Against these losses we may place the second exploit of E9, on 6th, when her commander sank a German destroyer in the estuary of the Ems, a feat of great difficulty and daring. Also on 16th the second considerable engagement of the war was fought. The *Undaunted*, Captain Fox, and four British destroyers sighted four German destroyers off the coast of Holland and gave chase. By superior seamanship, the British Flotilla got between the Germans and the Dutch coast, thus defeating their efforts to escape into the territorial waters of a neutral power, and then sank all four of them in a running fight which lasted an hour and-a-half. This fight was even more triumphantly successful than that of the Heligoland Bight.

From 19th onwards the "Monitors," a type of river gunboat drawing a very light draught, were engaged in covering the left flank of the Allied Army in Belgium and shelling the Germans out of their trenches. They were able to do this, because their range was longer than anything that the Germans could bring up against them. This work was afterwards taken up by other vessels of the Fleet.

Besides these successes two other successful duels were fought in different parts of the world. In the South Atlantic the *Carmania*, a converted merchantman, fought and sank the *Cape Trafalgar*, a German vessel of the same kind, while in the Indian Ocean H. M. light cruiser *Highflyer* sank the German armed merchantman *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*.

November saw the inclusion of Turkey among our enemies, but that event made scarcely any difference to the war at sea. It resulted in the bombardment of the Dardanelles on 3rd, and the demolition of the defensive works of Akaba on 4th. The expedition to the Persian Gulf was also materially aided by the Navy. In the main theatre of sea-warfare the month proved an expensive one for Great Britain, but it also served to show that one nation's loss is not always their enemy's gain, except in so far as their malicious feelings may be gratified. For the sinking of British ships has not relieved the pressure on Germany for a moment, so that none of the German successes can be compared in importance with the confining of their Fleet within narrow bounds, or the destruction of a naval base at Zeebrugge.

The month started with the unfortunate loss of the *Hermes* on 1st, and submarine D5 on 2nd. Apart from the loss of human life these were not important events. The ships were not of the newest type, and the *Hermes* was a small vessel.

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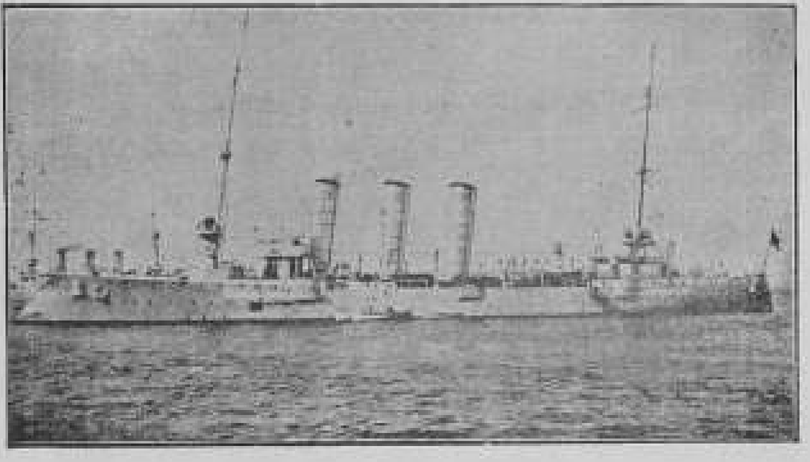
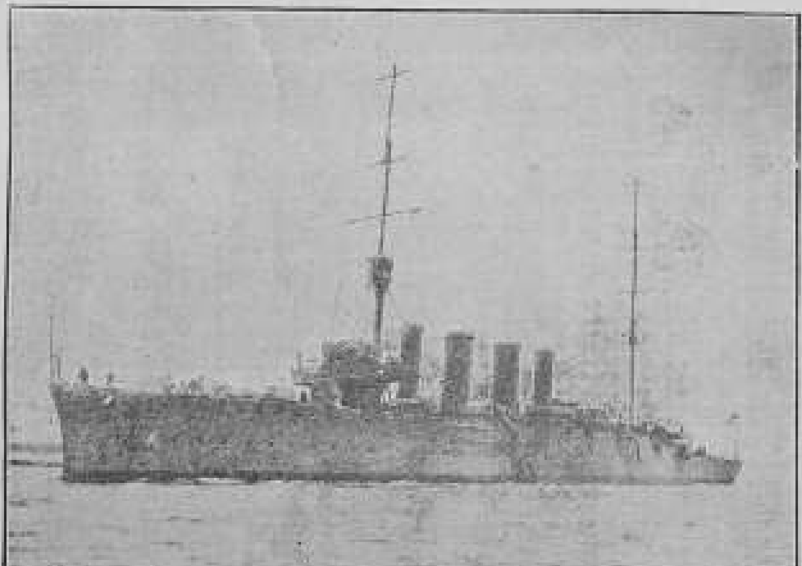
CAPTAIN OF THE SYDNEY.

VICE ADMIRAL DAVID BEATTY.

CAPTAIN OF THE EMDEN.

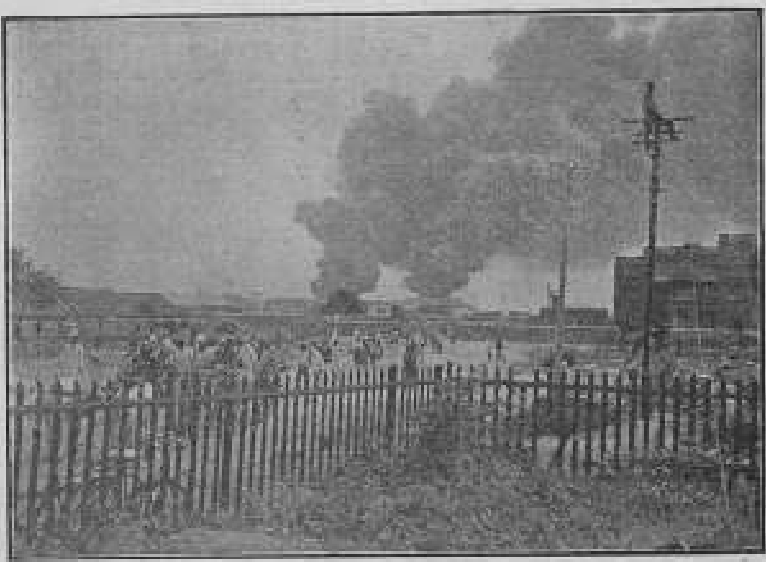


THE "EMDEN."

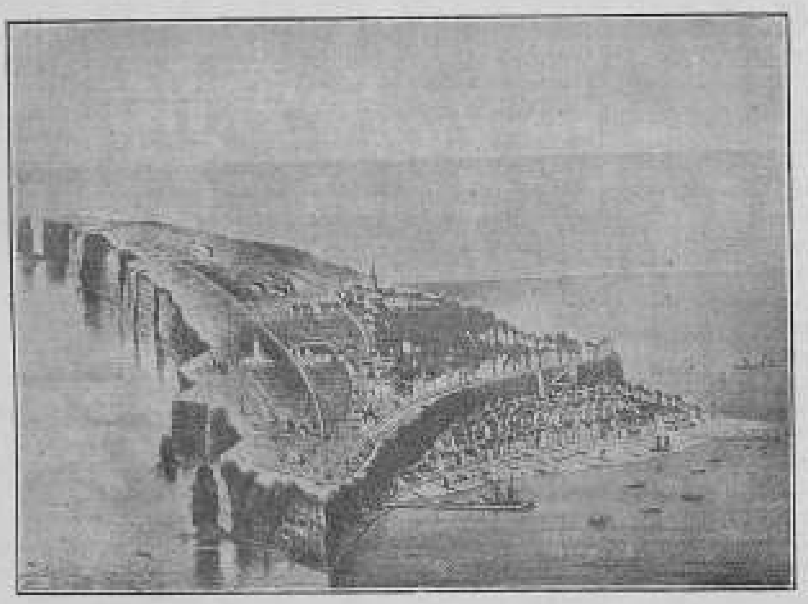


SYDNEY STEAMER

GUNNERS OF THE EMDEN.



AFTER "EMDEN'S" MISCHIEF IN MADRAS.



THE BIGHT OF HELIGOLAND.

This was followed on 5th by the raid off Yarmouth which was the first of a series of remarkably futile attacks, which we shall notice later. The outstanding feature of this action was that H. M. gunboat *Halcyon* managed to defend herself successfully against the attacking Squadron. On 13th of the month the gunboat *Niger* was torpedoed by a German submarine, as the *Hermes* had been a fortnight earlier.

The chief event of the month was, however, the fight off the Chilian coast in which five German cruisers engaged four vessels of Admiral Craddock's Squadron. Apart from the numerical superiority, the range of the German guns was longer than that of the British, and some of their vessels were of greater size and speed than any of the English ships engaged. The battle was fought in a very heavy sea, and as it began towards evening it was a great advantage to the Germans that they were between the English and the Chilian coast. The battle began at 10,000 yards range, but the English commander tried to close in and eventually lessened the distance to 4,500. By that time, however, the light was beginning to fail and the Germans had the full advantage of the English boats being silhouetted against the sunset, long after they had themselves become almost invisible in the dusk. It is not clear at what stage the *Otranto*, an auxiliary cruiser, that is a converted merchant vessel, was withdrawn from the fight, but probably she was ordered to make her escape as soon as the greater range of the German guns was discovered. At nightfall the Admiral ordered the *Monmouth* and the *Glasgow* to draw off, which the *Glasgow* succeeded in doing. The *Good Hope* and the *Monmouth* were both too badly damaged to get away, and apparently continued the fight until the last moment. Accounts are not very clear as to how the battle ended, but it seems that the *Monmouth* was last seen ablaze, but still firing, while the *Good Hope* was surrounded by three of the enemy's ships when she sank.

It is significant that though the Germans claim to have searched for survivors, none were found. In every engagement of like character where British ships remained on the scene of the action after it was over, numbers of Germans have been rescued from drowning; it is quite impossible not to draw sinister conclusions from the strangely ineffective German life-saving operations.

This fight certainly constitutes a victory for the German Navy, their one victory since the dawn of history, but it was not a Trafalgar or a St. Vincent, it had no consequences; it neither opened up the North Sea to German shipping nor did it drive the English merchantmen from the Pacific. It was won by good seamanship, by long-range guns, and by the concentration within the proper area of vessels of superior size and speed to the enemy, but this superiority could not last for many weeks against the Navy of Great Britain.

Against these mishaps we may place the blocking up of the *Koenigsburg* in an East African river by H.M.S. *Chatham* on 9th and on the same day the closing of the career of the notorious *Emden*. This was accomplished by the *Sydney* belonging to the Australian Squadron. The two vessels were of the same size, but apparently the *Emden* was a somewhat faster boat, which argues superior seamanship in the *Sydney* in being able to force her to fight. Evidently the *Sydney's* gunnery was very much better than the *Emden's*. When escape was impossible the *Emden* was run ashore, and the survivors of her crew, including her Captain, surrendered. Much sympathy has been expressed for this officer, because he showed some courtesy to his victims, but much more might be expressed for a ship's company which is defeated in its first engagement with a vessel of equal size. The *Emden's* career is not at all glorious, and is only distinguished from piracy by the exercise of considerable casuistry. It is, for example, contrary to the laws of civilized warfare to sink neutral cargo, even when carried in an enemy ship; but it is no part of the scope of this article to enumerate the evil acts of the enemy, but to attempt an account of the work done by the British Fleet.

Besides these successes, two German submarines were sunk off the Dutch Coast on 16th by the *Badger*, and on 25th came the bombardment of Zeebrugge. This action when compared with that off the coast of Chile well illustrates the difference between a German and an English success, which is not a total victory over the whole Fleet of the other Power. In the nature of things a German victory at sea can only be partial, temporary, and very local, when contending against a Power with such immense Naval resources as Great Britain, while it is next to impossible for Germany to make good her losses, and quite impossible to replace vessels lost in distant seas. In any case, for either Power, the war will not be decided in these waters, but in or near the North Sea.

The reason for attacking Zeebrugge was the German intention to convert it into a submarine

and aeroplane base from which to attack England. The bombardment was evidently very successful, with the result that the base was destroyed. This success has a definite and immediate bearing on the course of the war, for the establishment of such a base as that contemplated by the Germans would have forced the Admiralty to alter the disposition of the Fleet.

If in November the luck seemed to have turned against the Navy somewhat, December completely restored the balance. The month opened with a glorious and complete vengeance for the loss of the *Good Hope* and *Monmouth*. On 9th Admiral Sturdee's squadron consisting of some eight vessels, including two battle cruisers, the *Invincible* and a sister ship, met the German squadron of six cruisers, one auxiliary, off the Falkland Islands. It is clear that the Germans were out-manœuvred and out-classed from start to finish. The surprise of the fight for the Germans was the sudden appearance of the two battle-cruisers, on whose plates the missiles of the *Scharnhorst*, which had proved so deadly against the *Good Hope* a month before, now rattled harmlessly. In spite of this most disheartening circumstance, she fought gamely till she sank, but without doing any damage. The *Gneisenau* evidently also sank fighting. The *Leipsig* surrendered at the last moment to the *Glasgow*, but as that vessel came alongside to render assistance, she was fired upon by one of the *Leipsig's* upper deck guns. It, therefore, became necessary to ignore her surrender, and she sank after one broadside had been poured into her at close range. In reporting the incident the British Officers expressed the opinion that the final shot was accidental. The *Nuremburg* was sunk in a running fight, and to this the remaining vessels, the *Dresden* and *Prince Eitel Friedrich* owe their safety, for they escaped while the British vessels stopped to pick up the *Nuremburg's* survivors. This victory differs from the German victory in the Pacific in one important respect, namely, that while it was possible for Great Britain to more than make good her losses in a month, it will not be possible for Germany to do so until she has hazarded and won a complete victory in the North Sea.

On 12th the Submarine B11 performed an astonishing feat of skill and daring. Her Commander dived her under five separate mine belts in the Dardanelles, and torpedoed the Turkish guardship *Messudieh*. As a feat of skill and daring this could hardly be surpassed, but as an act of war it is equally memorable. It produced a feeling of uncertainty bordering on panic at Constantinople, and we need not be surprised that it did so. The Turks, and Europe as a whole, have long believed the Straits impregnable, but it has now been shown that they can be forced by a type of vessel of unknown capacity for inflicting damage. The Commander of B11, was awarded the Victoria Cross for this astounding act of gallantry.

The Germans on 15th raided the East Coast towns of Hartlepool, Scarboro' and Whitby under the totally absurd plea that they were defended places. The casualties, which were heavy, were nearly all women and children; this fact speaks for itself. If there were any earthworks thrown up to resist invasion, they would hardly be in the centres of the towns, where the projectiles were aimed. As an act of war this need not be mentioned, except for a daring raid of reprisal to which it gave rise. On 25th eight airmen accompanied by torpedo-boats and submarines and one cruiser, attacked the naval base at Cuxhaven, and returned uninjured. What extent of damage was done is not known, as the German Government have published no report, but the fact of the raid is significant, and the confidence of the Germans in the impregnability of Cuxhaven is as shaken as that of the Turks about the Dardanelles. The year closed with the news of the sinking of the *Formidable*, a vessel of an old type, by a German submarine in the English Channel.

Since the opening of the New Year the sea struggle has been mostly an attempt by Germany to sink merchant vessels, and by England to force the passage of the Dardanelles. It is satisfactory to notice that German warships, other than submarines, now only exist in German waters. The *Dresden* has met the fate of her consorts of the action off the Falkland Islands, some torpedo boats and some submarines have been accounted for in the North Sea and round the English Coast.

Since the middle of February, the Germans have given up attacking armed vessels, and have taken to sinking any ships their submarines happen to meet. It is at once useless and foolish to make outcries against the sinking of the *Falaba* or the *Lusitania* to provide half-holidays for German school-children; it is part of the German 'plan of campaign,' almost the only part that they can now carry out. Let one fact speak for itself. During the War, the British Fleet has rescued 1,282 German sailors from drowning, during the same period no single British sailor

has been rescued by a German vessel. During all the long and fierce struggles between England and France, there was never such a disparity between them in acts of ordinary humanity at sea.

Perhaps one German raid may be mentioned as showing the extraordinary development of modern gunnery. Admiral Beatty with a patrolling Squadron intercepted an attempt by a fast German Squadron to emulate the Scarboro' raid. The feature of this encounter was the devastating effect of the British gunnery at a range of ten miles. On their own admission, many German seamen, unable to bear its appalling accuracy, jumped into the sea, where they were fired upon by their own officers until picked up by our destroyers. In this fight many German vessels were hit, some being clearly damaged seriously, while the *Blucher*, a large cruiser, was sunk by gun fire and torpedo. Some temporary damage was done to H. M. Cruiser *Lion*, but no serious loss was incurred. It must be remembered that the German ships retired immediately on sighting the British, so that all the damage was done during a hot pursuit. More loss might have been inflicted on the enemy but for the English practice of saving life at sea.

From recording these raids, which only become real warfare by accident, we turn to the attempt to force the Dardanelles and the bombardment of the fortifications of the coast of Asia Minor. These operations have been proceeding slowly, aided by a French Squadron, but the task was impossible for the Fleets unaided by troops. The Allies lost several vessels without attaining their object. During April much better progress has been made as an allied military force has been sent to co-operate with the Fleets.

During the month of May, the Dardanelles operations took a new turn, the Army under General Sir Ian Hamilton taking up the work which the Navy had begun. It is true that several battleships were lost, the *Majestic*, *Triumph*, *Irresistable*, *Ocean* and *Goliath*, represent the price which the Navy had to pay in this effort to force the Straits. It so happens, however, that the loss of life was in no case very great, while the punishment inflicted on the enemy by the guns of these ships was very heavy. They were all vessels of old type so that their period of usefulness to the active Fleet would in no case have been much longer than it actually was. In the case of old vessels, the extent of a disaster must be judged by the loss of life entailed.

The most sensational event in May occurred on 8th of the month, when the passenger steamer *Lusitania* was sunk, off the southern coast of Ireland, by German submarines, involving very great loss of life. The protests of the whole world have shown how civilization looks upon such acts. This is only one of many barbarities committed by Germany during the War, but attention has been fixed on it because of its sudden and overwhelming character. Since the end of May, the reported deeds of the Fleet have been few, but this is mainly due to the inactivity of the German Navy.

This does not pretend to be an exhaustive account of every British loss or gain, nor has any attempt been made to describe the naval operations of our Allies: France, Russia and Japan, nor has any former reference been made to the career of the *Goeben* and the *Breslau*. But enough has been said to show that the Fleet has done much to revive and sustain the glories of its ancient traditions.

The war is not yet over, the great sea-fight has still to be fought, but we can even now draw some conclusions from what has already taken place. It is clear, for instance, that the submarine has quite come up to expectations as to its usefulness in attack and in scouting work. It is evidently more destructive than the sea-mine and only less useful as a scout than the aeroplane. The aeroplane again has not proved very effective as a bomb-dropping machine, its best work is in scouting, and in this it is excellent. Again, for this kind of warfare, light cruisers and auxiliary cruisers are most valuable because of their speed. These auxiliary cruisers are merchant vessels commissioned by the Admiralty on the outbreak of war, their chief duty is to protect trade. Torpedo-boats and destroyers have not played the part in this war which they did in that between Russia and Japan, nor have the great battleships yet been brought into action.

So far, the English Fleet has succeeded in protecting English trade and making German oversea trade impossible, these are two of the objects at which the Naval Policy of a nation should aim. The third aim is to bring about an engagement with the enemy's main Fleet to its greatest disadvantage. This Great Britain hopes to perform by the slow strangulation of Germany's sea trade, when public opinion may compel the enemy to come out. On the other hand the Germans hope to weaken the Fleet by submarine attacks and to

goad it into hasty action by repeated raids. They calculate on the power of a series of raids to produce a feeling of panic, and on this to force the hands of the Admiralty. For this purpose the raids must be as terrifying as possible, they have not attained their chief object, even if they sank a war vessel or demolished a fort, unless a large number of women and children have been killed, or the life of the Queen-mother threatened. Their object is not to fight, but to compel the fleet to fight at a time, and in a place of their own choosing. They have not succeeded in their object, because the depths of horror have already been plumbed in Belgium. Nothing worse than that can happen even from the malice of Germany. Consequently these raids have only deepened the determination of the whole nation to fight this war to a finish. It is, however, beside the point to hold up our hands in shocked surprise at Germany's breaches of the agreements which she has signed. After the invasion of Belgium, Germany logically repudiates all her other obligations. We are fighting a race which respects Hague and Geneva instruments as little as does the Hottentot or the Australian aborigines, only they never went through the farce of signing them. We must expect a renewal of the Hartlepool murders, and remember that what strikes us with disgust and horror is what the Germans will repeat in the hope of producing fear.

THE INDIAN TROOPS IN THE WAR.

BY PROF. K. C. MACARTNEY, M A.

SINCE it was not possible to make special reference to the part played by the Indian Corps in the fighting in France and Belgium when reviewing the course of the Western campaign, it seems not altogether inappropriate to say something on the subject under a special head.

At the outbreak of the War, the earnest desire of the Indian people that Indian troops should be sent to Europe to help forward the great cause of the whole Empire, was granted by a grateful Home Government. The most serious bar to the use of Indian troops was the problem of the climate, but where the French-Algerian troops could go, it was not unnaturally felt that the Indian soldiers might go too. In any case, the urgent necessity to have as many trained soldiers as possible in France would of itself have compelled the Government to employ the Indian army before the close of the year.

When the contingents arrived in France, the first phase of the war had come to an end on the Aisne, and the struggle for Belgium was developing. This kind of warfare was very different from what our troops had been accustomed to, the incessant trench fighting and the artillery fire on such a scale were both entirely new to them, but they seem to have accommodated themselves to the strange conditions with very remarkable rapidity. Some of the units were hurried into action almost directly they reached the Front, and then, and on all occasions since, they won the praise of Sir John French for the efficient manner in which they performed the part allotted to them. This was, of course, no surprise to the ordinary Englishman, who knew that unless they had been first class troops they would never have been placed in the firing line, but to the Germans it seems to have come as a complete surprise. The prowess of the Gurkha regiments in capturing trenches, the accuracy of the Sikh marksmanship, the fighting capacity of the races of India, and above all, their discipline and self-restraint, were apparently unknown to them.

Of the value of their services to the Empire and the cause of Truth and Honesty throughout the world there can be no doubt. The despatches of Sir John French and the casualty lists of the fighting round Ypres, at Givenchy and at Neuve Chapelle, and of many other fights, tell a tale which needs no comment. It is not the purpose of this notice to write sensational descriptions of heroic deeds, but it is not altogether out of place to point out that this is the first war in which it has been possible for an Indian soldier to win the Victoria Cross, and that more than one has already received it. It is well-known that in this war a V. C. represents not one but many gallant acts, and for every one who has the good fortune to receive the highest reward for valour, there are many brave men who in other campaigns would be considered to have earned it. India has as much right to be proud of the part played by her soldiers in the great struggle, as of the ideals for which they are fighting in common with the other soldiers of the Empire.

Madras, 5th August, 1915.

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